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The report was comprised of 22 papers presented by US and foreign home economists at a conference held in July 1965 at Iowa State University. The meeting was planned to serve the interests of those who train foreign students in US universities and those who plan to work in home economics programs abroad. The international aspects and priorities of home economics were explored, with particular emphasis on Latin American and African programs. Presentations considered new viewpoints on the role of home economics in developing countries; internationalization of graduate education and research in this country for foreign students and US citizens who plan to work abroad; cross-cultural understanding in technical assistance programs to provide for mutually rewarding interchange between developed and developing nations. Other topics were the status, changing role and greater potential of women; development of programs in the US, Latin America and Africa that are geared to contribute realistically to community or national economy; potentials in the development of international university curricula and human resources through overcoming barriers to communication; and future challenges. The conference summary stressed key words: problems, progress, education, research, understanding, humanism, language, ingenuity, and bold approach. Also included were symposium and panels' statements as well as a summary of work group reports. (WM)

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INTERNATIONAL HOME ECONOMICS

AGRICULTURAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

CAED Report 25

INTERNATIONAL HOME ECONOMICS

Conference on World-Wide Development of Home Economics in Higher Education

Proceedings of a Conference held in Ames, Iowa, July 19-23, 1965.

Sponsored by the

Division of Home Economics, National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges

and the

4 Center for Agricultural and Economic Development, Iowa State University

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PREFACE

The papers comprising this report were presented at the Conference on World-Wide Development of Home Economics in Higher Education held July 19-23, 1965 at Iowa State University.

The conference was the second in a series initiated by the Home Economics Division of the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges at its annual meeting in 1961.

The first such conference was held June 5-7, 1963 at Oklahoma State University. Attendance was limited to home economics representatives engaged in contractual arrangements with foreign universities or anticipating such arrangements. The Oklahoma conference helped identify major areas of concern and responsibility in working with cooperative home economics programs in other countries. The focus was on the Asian countries.

One outcome of the first conference was the recommendation that the second in the series be held in 1965, with emphasis on Latin American and African countries.

Such was the emphasis of the Iowa conference, which was jointly sponsored by the Center for Agricultural and Economic Development of Iowa State University and the Home Economics Division of the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges.

The purposes of the 1965 conference were:

1. To identify significant roles of home economics in developing countries.
2. To improve the contribution of home economics in developing human resources in emerging countries.
3. To consider approaches to cooperative efforts in developing home economics programs especially in the African and the Latin American countries.
4. To initiate the development of long-range plans for the intercultural exchange of home economics.
5. To strengthen the programs offered to international students by colleges and universities in the United States.

The conference was planned to serve the interests of those who wish to work in home economics programs abroad and those who are concerned with the education of international students in the universities and colleges of the United States. Approximately 165 home economists from other states and from foreign countries, including the African and Latin American countries, participated in the conference.

New viewpoints of the role of home economics in developing countries were gained from the discussions of women leaders in the countries of special interest and representatives from various agencies and universities with long-time programs in these two parts of the world.

The speakers and discussion groups considered such topics as the opportunities and roles for home economists in developing countries, cross-cultural understanding, barriers to communications, developing home economics programs abroad, and the internationalization of graduate education and research.

Work groups and panel discussions provided for an exchange of ideas among the participants, a majority of whom had had experience in international work.

Members of the planning committee were:

Doretta Hoffman, Co-chairman
Dean, College of Home Economics
Kansas State University

Lura Odland, Co-chairman
Dean, College of Home Economics
University of Tennessee

Lela O'Toole, Dean
Division of Home Economics
Oklahoma State University

Mary B. Wood, Director of
International Home Economics Activities
New York State College of Home Economics
Cornell University

Ercel S. Eppright, Assistant Dean
College of Home Economics
Iowa State University

The committee recommended that a third conference be held in 1967.

Ercel S. Eppright
Chairman for local arrangements

SEARCHING FOR DIRECTIONS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF HOME ECONOMICS PROGRAMS ABROAD

by Frances Zuill*

Searching for directions seems to be one of the chief responsibilities of a home economist who lives and works in a foreign field. Indeed, it becomes one of her main obligations as she undertakes new tasks in a strange land. Sometimes the search is for understanding of the people with whom she works, their way of life, their relationships with others, and their reactions to professional situations. At other times it is an endeavor to find the correct interpretation of events, happenings, situations, directions, and patterns of behavior. It may be an effort to seek or find knowledgeable contacts for guidance in handling specific problems. It may be an inquiry to locate necessary and useful resources for the solution of problems. On some occasions it is a matter of exploring the best ways to determine desirable changes, or even to introduce change. On other occasions it is an attempt to discover a priority of needs, or relevant studies. Sometimes it is an attempt to pin-point unique ways in which home economics might contribute to the economic life of the community or nation, or to shape social situations in the lives of family members. Whether the problems are as complicated as the part to be played in a government third five-year plan, or as simple as the protocol that has to be observed among officials, solutions have to be found that are in harmony with the environmental setting. A foreign assignement seems to be characterized by constant investigation of some problem or other, and by continuous probing to find directions, to determine the focus that might prove most significant and meaningful to the country.

Expansion of Home Economics in International Education

As international education takes on new importance and new proportions in an ever increasing number of American educational institutions there is no doubt that the participation of home economists in international programs will increase in number and variety, and in parts of the world where they have not been previously. It is heartening, therefore, to know how many home economics units have already built an international dimension into their programs and thereby enriched the total program.

Some are concentrating their efforts on adequate programs and counselling for foreign students on the home campus; some are at the same time serving as back-stopping institutions for foreign projects, or are cooperating in overall contractual programs; others are providing well organized trainee programs; still others are loaning professional staff members to university projects or to government agencies. When all university and government-sponsored projects are added together the total effort is sizable and commendable.

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*Miss Zuill is emeritus dean and professor, School of Home Economics, University of Wisconsin, and former chief adviser, Oklahoma-Pakistan Home Economics Program.

As a matter of fact the organization of programs in developing countries is dependent upon the training of their nationals both at home and abroad. If all of these students would return to their home countries well prepared and would accept professional positions, they would provide an effective source of leadership. Unfortunately all of them do not return home, nor do all of them work. Moreover, some who work do so for relatively short periods of time.

If all of the foreign institutions that have access to the "know-how" and services of consultants used them effectively, progress in home economics could be made more rapidly. Culture patterns seem to demand time to overcome what is frequently called "reasonable doubts." Since home economics is involved in international education in two equally important ways, i.e. at home and abroad, it seems imperative that both be carefully scrutinized to discover the pitfalls in each.

Over the last 10 to 15 years quite a wealth of experience and information related to foreign service has been accumulated by the large number of American home economists who have worked overseas. In most instances the home institutions value the knowledge that their employes gather while on assignment. However, college reports and materials are not readily available outside of the colleges, and so far as I know materials from the Far and Middle East, the Orient, and Africa have never been put together in any coordinated or summarized form for the benefit of those who are establishing new programs, for new personnel who may take positions in the foreign field, or for campus libraries. There are many government publications that are extremely useful. One such coordinated publication emanating from the university group would no doubt have a character of its own, and would be very helpful in giving an over-all picture of home economics work in international education.

I have wondered what I have to add to this accumulation of knowledge and experience, for there are many similarities in developing countries and the problems they present. Of course each of us approaches such an assignment differently, because we bring to a situation such varied backgrounds and personality traits. My experience has been limited to four and one-half months in India and three years in Pakistan. My point of departure will necessarily have to be from my own personal work in the foreign field.

It was my great privilege to see programs in other countries on that side of the world, such as the Philippines, Thailand, Japan, Hong Kong, Lebanon, Turkey, and Nepal, and to visit with American home economists in Afganistan and Egypt. However, while in those countries I could acquire on short visits only descriptive accounts of their programs. From them I gained impressions and opinions, but I was never certain that my interpretations of what was said were entirely accurate, or that my information was complete and current. I mention current because the programs on the continent changed a great deal between my first and last visits to them.

Of one thing I feel certain, and that is that no method of learning foreign situations can substitute for the first hand experience of living, working, and socializing, day by day, in Pakistan or in any other country for that matter. Yet after three years of continuous residence in Pakistan and four and one-half months in India, it is difficult to separate what are known to be facts, and what may be based on experiences, impressions, and opinions, or possibly on ideas expressed by other people. Perhaps, I should not admit to be such a "slow learner." But it is difficult to comprehend the value systems one encounters in different cultures and to understand the ramifications, meanings, and shades thereof as well as the implications of these value systems. There are so many intangibles, abstractions, and subtleties to cogitate in these Far Eastern countries.

Have you ever seen pictures of the water buffalo in Pakistan, resting and keeping cool in pools of water, or in ponds, in lakes or on the beaches during the many months of torrid weather there? All that can be seen is the head and the hump of the water buffalo's back. Much is submerged in comparison to what is exposed! Similarly, there is much below the surface in foreign countries that is never readily revealed to foreigners, much which, if one could fathom, might provide a greater depth of understanding of the national character.

Since I have been home I have had time to reflect about what constitutes adequate preparation for a foreign assignment in home economics if one is to give effective service. It is puzzling indeed, because one is expected to know so much about so many different fields and it is impossible to measure up to the expectations. Depending upon the situation at hand it would be nice to be well informed in such fields as history, sociology, anthropology, behavioral sciences or agriculture, for any one of these disciplines would be helpful in finding directions at times. To say that a thorough acquaintance with the environment where the project is located is an absolute necessity is axiomatic. It must be gained by many and varied means, and to a great extent through one's own efforts, interest, and curiosity. This is not to imply that acquaintance is synonymous with understanding all of the factors that influence the life of the people for it is not.

Understanding a Country and Its Needs

In my college days relatively little emphasis was placed on the history and culture of the sub-continent, or at least it seemed so to me when the Asian countries began to figure more prominently in world affairs. Only after I had been invited to go to India and later to Pakistan did I concentrate on learning everything that was possible about the historical, social, economic, political, educational, and religious life of this particular area of the world.

It seems possible, through comprehensive reading, to gain a general, cultural and historical orientation to a foreign territory. However, many aspects of the situation in this part of Asia do not become meaningful until one has arrived and come face to face with the realities of life there at the present time. The retrogression of an old civilization resulting from hordes of invaders, bitter fighting within, plagues, epidemics, and tidal waves over some 4,000 years of history is there for one to see. The march of history then takes on significance. It is only through personal contacts with a culture, which is so very different from our own, that sensitivity to the people and to the problems that color their lives is likely to be acquired.

The acceptance of this kind of an assignment seemed to me to carry with it a great feeling of responsibility for accomplishing the goals or purposes that had been set forth for the project. This, in turn, developed a sense of urgency about knowing more facts about the immediate environment, especially those that were significant in the economic life of the nation, the social problems of the community, the relationships in the family, and the educational system and its effects on illiteracy. On one occasion early in my sojourn I was discussing with Dr. Harry Case, then representative of the Ford Foundation, the importance of advisers having more facts about the needs, interests, and aptitudes of Pakistani girls and the goals of families. Dr. Case offered this advice: "Let me give you some practical suggestions. Take time to learn this country. This is the most important thing you can do at the beginning of your term. You bring to this assignment competency in the American home economics field. Now you will have to learn how to use it in a place like Pakistan."

Of course it was not meant that all of the problems of the nation could be absorbed at once. It was intended to remind an incoming adviser of some of the national situations which deeply affect the attitudes and judgments of the people, such as the animosities that persist as a result of the triangular struggle between the British Imperial Administration, the Hindu Congress, and the Muslim League, which ultimately resulted in freedom from British domination and the partition of India into two sovereign states in 1947. It was also intended that there should be a thoughtful consideration of the differences in East and West Pakistan, in land area and population, in political leanings, in economic structure, in language and customs.

Dr. Case's advice was intended to emphasize that some things had to be learned quickly, such as the organization of government from top to bottom, the educational system and its relationship to government at all levels, the hierarchy of officials, institutions and organizations that might serve as resources for the project including the research agencies, and the role of women in an Islamic nation. Learning the country involved its economy, industry, exports and imports, land reforms, health reforms, and plans for rehabilitation centers to supplant refugee camps. It involved acquaintance with people in all walks of life. The truth is that I had just about caught up with these national problems when my term ended. I arrived when the country was under martial law and left when the new constitution had been in operation its second year. The changes came so rapidly during the change-over that it was difficult to keep in step with them.

Learning about the life in one community is much easier because some kind of exploration can be made each day. In Pakistan it seemed imperative to learn as quickly as possible how people lived at different economic levels, what kind of housing was available to them, what kind of furnishings and equipment they used, what source of water supply and waste disposal was available to them, how they secured the necessities of life and how they managed them, what conditions prevailed in regard to care and safety of children, the size of families, and the occupation of the earners. The position of women in Muslim families was important also.

There is great need in Pakistan for reliable information about families. There is a dearth of studies on housing, food, nutritional status, clothing, vocations, education, and family patterns. The Central Statistical Bureau provides excellent charts dealing with the number in schools at every level, but there are few reliable statistics about the chidren who never go to school. The Population Census, 1961, provides much excellent material, but that is not an accurate index for planning the housing, feeding, and educating of the fast growing population. It is estimated that the population in 1960 was 87 million, but that it had risen to approximately 110 million in 1965.

The Planning Commission has made a large number of research studies in preparation for the Third Five-Year Plan. It was encouraging to note one such study on "Housing," one on "Education of Women" and a third one on "Gainful Employment of Women." I believe that this was the first time that studies concerning women were made as a basis for planning for them for the ensuing five-year period. Most of the studies in the past have related to the economic structure in the country and plans for the development of the economy.

Because there has been such a dearth of available research and statistical materials dealing with the problems of the family, more has had to be learned by inquiry and observation. For example, four members of the home economics team were quick to accept an invitation to accompany the nutrition survey team composed of East Pakistani medical and research personnel and workers from the National Institutes of Health on a visit to rural villages in East Pakistan, where the survey was being made. Such an observational visit not only provided an opportunity to see the organization and research design of such a survey but also to see the village families and homes involved in the study. That particular nutritional status study has now been completed and another is in progress in West Pakistan.

To learn what living was like in mud huts there were visits to them whenever invitations were extended by employes at the Ford Foundation office or by servants in our homes . There were numerous trips to refugee camps, rehabilitation centers, literacy classes, mud-hut schools (Muhulla), tree schools, government schools(both primitive and modern), outpatient clinics in hospitals, inoculation centers, leper colonies, maternity and child health clinics, and primitive pottery centers. There were innumerable opportunities to participate in family festivals, to attend wedding ceremonies, to celebrate children's birthdays, and to observe holiday and religious programs. In fact there was a constant stream of events such as school demonstrations, bazaars, handicraft and art exhibitions, and drama, music and dance affairs. By this means it was possible to become well acquainted with the way of life in an urban community, which is in sharp contrast to the quick, occasional visits from which impressions are frequently derived. Only time and energy set limits on such observations.

It sometimes seemed that the more that was learned about the country and the conditions that surrounded a high percentage of the people the more unanswered questions there were. I think that I can say without contradiction that the families in the lower income levels are inadequately housed, fed, clothed, and cared for. But what is being done about it? What can be done by the government for these millions with the limited financial resources that are available to meet all the needs of the country?

The needs and wants of Muslims are bound up with the traditions and customs of Islam, for Muslims place great faith in the Quran (Koran). Needs and wants in the uneducated groups -- i.e., the lower classes and lower middle classes are often influenced by superstitions, , fears, and prejudices. I often wondered about their attitudes toward others whom they seemed to distrust. Class distinctions seem to be accepted as a way of life, and seldom do servants, drivers, peons, watchmen, or gardeners show any resentment regarding their lot. Sometimes they complained that their pay did not cover their necessities.

Pakistan a Land of Contrasts

To me Pakistan presents two very dissimilar faces, which show the great contrasts in the life there. It is almost impossible to reconcile the two faces. One is the modern face which represents the life of the few, probably 10 to 15 per cent, such as the owners of the textile mills and other rich industrialists, the executives of foreign-owned businesses, the airline executives, high ranking government and military officials, foreign-educated professional men and women, land holders, bankers, and families who inherited wealth. To this group perhaps one should add the upper middle class, composed of the white collar workers employed by the elite of the nation. This face is also represented by new suburban developments, by fine clubs for the socially prominent, by distinctive commercial buildings like the new National Bank or the new Intercontinental Hotel, by handsome industrial structures, expensive residences, and beautiful mosques.

The other face represents the masses, the millions, the high percentage of the population, perhaps 80 to 85 per cent,the illiterate and those weighed down by poverty. This face includes the great clusters of hovels, shanties, and mud huts that house the poor, both within the cities and dotting the landscape of Pakistan from border to border. It includes the refugee camps, the rehabilitation centers, and the leper colonies. The unbelievably poor conditions, the unsanitary situations, the exceedingly poor health standards, the squalor caused by the great number of animals that are kept near the huts, present a very sobering picture indeed, and one that is very distressing to an American adviser. Combine all this with the fleets of donkey carts, camel and bullock carts, horse drawn tongas and lorries, motor and even bicycle rickshas in East Pakistan, and you have a mental picture of the very hard life of the vast majority of people. In the last two or three years there have been loud protests from the refugee camps and from other intolerable living areas.

There is a relatively small middle class made up of owners of small shops or businesses, chiefly in the markets or bazaars, "white collar" workers, teachers, artisans, craftsmen, clerks, government and military personnel in the lower echelons, and others who have modest incomes or even fairly low incomes, but steady incomes. In general their homes are plain but substantial. They lack the amenities of the upper strata, but they also lack the very bad elements of the poor.

Go back with me for a moment to the upper class. This is the group that has the means to send their children to schools and colleges. It is the group that know the significance of education in the life of the nation. It is the group that participates in the educational, cultural, economic, social, and political activities of the nation.

Those in the lower group have no means for sending their children to schools. They know very little about the process of education, for only a few among them have ever had the opportunity to darken the door of a school. Hopefully, the middle class with some government help through scholarships should aspire to schooling for their children.

Briefly stated, this is the background against which plans for the development of various types of education have to be made. In a setting such as this what does society expect of its schools? And for girls in particular? A new era for women is slowly emerging in Pakistan and consequently consideration is being given to their education. An attempt is being made to evolve programs suited to their needs at this stage in their history. The representatives of education in the ministries and secretariats of government believe that home economics has within its framework the facets of education that are important for girls and women in countries where life at this time is largely confined to the home and family. In Pakistan a high percentage of women are in purdah (hidden from the sight of men or strangers).

Improvements in the Educational System

Let us consider a few facts about the educational system and how home economics fits into the scheme. First of all, the National Commission on Education appointed by President Ayub Khan reported its two-year study in an excellent and comprehensive document at the end of 1960, and it became available for general use early in 1961. In it the guidelines for an educational program, adapted to Pakistan, were set forth. It is very encouraging to note the new attitude toward the role of women in education. Not only did the commission recognize the need for education for girls and women at all levels but it strongly urged the government to implement the recommendations immediately. High priority was given to home economics, for it was recommended that home economics be introduced in all girls' schools from the sixth class through higher secondary classes. It further recommended that departments be opened in women's colleges and universities. In order to implement the programs which the commission feels is desirable for the improvement and uplifting of standards of living in the country, it recommended that additional home economics colleges be established to train the staff personnel that will be required. The recommendation that seemed most important to me concerned undertaking teacher training. This has been a mute question because of the traditional teacher training colleges, which have in the past protected their vested interests.

Actually none of the recommendations are new ideas for the home economics people, for all of them have been suggested innumerable times by the home economics colleges, as the records show. The important aspect of the situation and the element that is new is the willingness of these government commissions to highlight the expansion of home economics as has been done in their late published reports.

In a developing country like Pakistan, where competition for funds is very great, recommendations move forward at a snail's pace. Since the prevalent attitude of the public toward women's education is improving and the attitude towards women's role in society is slowly changing, greater importance may be attached to moving the recommendations forward than was true in the period 1961-64.

For many years a great disparity between provisions for schools for girls and boys has existed. In 1963 the ratio at the primary level was 1:4, at the middle school level 1:6 and at the secondary school level 1:4. As late as 1963 only 19 per cent of the children in elementary schools were girls; thus, in proportion to the population, the total number of girls who are eligible for higher education is small. Up to the present time there has been no compulsory education and no free education as we know it. One of the educational targets for the Third Five-Year Plan is compulsory education through the fifth class by 1975, and through the eighth class by 1985. Because this may prove to be an unrealistic goal, the government has suggested a leeway of 10 years.

If the population continues to grow at its present rate and continues to exceed the new provisions for schools, the government may not be able economically both to close the gaps and to proceed with its plans to improve the early education of the millions, no matter how important education may be for a developing country. All leaders agree that education is one of the chief instruments for the improvement of living conditions and the economic life of the nation, but the expansion of education is tied to the development of the country's economic resources and the sound development of its economic system.

To date few girls, percentage-wise, have been eligible for secondary schools and colleges; thus only few graduates emerge annually from the upper levels of education. Yet it is from this small group that women leaders for all types of new programs must be drawn.

The general conditions of the country have a bearing on the colleges, regardless of the nature and purposes of the colleges. Considering all of the competing interests and needs, home economics colleges have fared very well from the standpoint of financial support and from the standpoint of the respect they have been accorded by officials. Since home economics is a relatively new educational endeavor in Pakistan and not well known or understood by the public, it is a great credit to those associated with the program that it has reached its present status.

The Establishment of Home Economics Colleges

Inasmuch as I have commented chiefly on the kinds of orientation to conditions of the country and the kinds of understandings that are essential for those who work there, I should now like to comment on the home economics colleges in particular. Orientation to them proved very helpful in finding our initial directions. The team of which I was a part arrived in the late summer and early fall of 1961 to carry forward the home economics college project, which is under the auspices of Oklahoma State University, and sponsored by the Ford Foundation. I want to emphasize carry forward, because these colleges from the very beginning have had consulant services of American home economists. One of the colleges in West Pakistan started in 1955 and is on its way; the second is in progress but is not quite as far advanced, and the third, in East Pakistan, opened its doors in 1961, when our team arrived.

The team had the benefit of a short period of orientation at Oklahoma State University and the privilege of reading and studying documents prepared by the Oklahoma staff, and the reports of former advisers who had worked on the Pakistan program. These were very informative. Likewise, the project provided an over-lapping period with the previous chief adviser, which was not only exceedingly helpful but insured continuity in planning ahead for the colleges. In addition, one member of the team had had a previous two-year assignment on the same project at the time it was initiated. This, too, was fortunate and gave the newcomers a head-start. Each of these methods of orientation helped to provide some sense of security for the team's introduction to the colleges and their personnel, to the universities with which the colleges are affiliated, to the government officers to whom the colleges are immediately responsible, and to the Ford Foundation staff located in Pakistan. Since these colleges were the focus of our concern, the study of their history, organization, and operation began at once. Because these colleges, like all others, cannot be isolated from the communities in which they exist, it was fortunate that their problems could be studied simultaneously with those of the community and nation, for they are all interrelated.

While time does not permit a discussion of the specifics of the three college programs I do want to say that the over-arching objective was the development of sound plans for four-year programs, consisting of two years of higher secondary school and two years of college leading to a B.S. degree, with an additional two years leading to an M.S. degree. A conscious effort was made by means of carefully planned curricula and syllabi to insure that these three programs functioned as a whole. From the beginning, the importance of a professional course, especially for teaching, was stressed, as well as the promotion of research studies and community services. It was hoped that as early as conditions permitted that favorable action would be taken by appropriate government officials to extend the scope of the program, first to teaching and later to other professions as demands for special services such as hospital dietetics warranted such services.

In such young colleges there was great need for continuous study and improvement of the curricula, syllabi, methods of teaching and teaching materials, staff development, facilities, library, administration, outside services and contacts, and student activities. While the colleges do not have the necessary personnel or facilities for basic scientific research at this time, they are equipped to do a variety of smaller studies, such as applied research, or experimental work, social surveys, or educational studies. The staffs have had the stimulation and help of three different American research professors as well as the guidance of advisers in initiating simple studies.

An Evaluation of the Home Economics Colleges by Government Committees

In 1965 Pakistan began its Third Five-Year Plan. Preparation for this plan began in 1962-63. The Central Ministry of Education requested that an evaluation of the progress of the three home economics colleges be made. Like all agencies of government, each college was required to present a developmental scheme for the next five years. It was felt that such a study would help the colleges as well as the government to assess the present situation and to plan for the future. An outline was prepared by representatives of the colleges, which was used by all of them in preparing concise, descriptive statements, and in collecting necessary data for the evaluation committees which were appointed by the government. To help guide the principals and staffs, supplementary outlines on each aspect of the college situation were prepared. To be brief, the final documents summarized the materials gathered in each college and included sections regarding the college history and objectives, its resources (land, buildings, equipment, furnishings and library), number of trained and partially trained staff in the various areas, non-academic employees, an analysis of the student body, programs offered, number of graduates and number employed, short courses offered, community services not a part of the regular program, budgets, and additional items pertinent to one or another of the three colleges. The final section dealt with projections for future development especially for the Third Five-Year Plan, with recommendations as to priorities by years, and the funds needed for the present and for the projected programs.

These documents were presented to the evaluation committees and to other officials concerned. The government authorized two consultants to serve with the appointed committees; Deans Lela O'Toole and Lura Mae Odlund served in this capacity. The documents were reviewed with the principals, staff representatives, and advisers during the first three months of 1964. Out of the varying opinions and views it was expected that directions for the future would be identified.

This evaluation study required a searching review of the history of the colleges, the over-all programs year by year, the progress that had been made, the strengths and weaknesses in operation, and in truth a review of all facets of the college. The participation of the staff stimulated them to assist in the search for future directions.

Just a word about the students in these colleges. They come mainly from the upper strata of society like girls in all other colleges in Pakistan, for this is the segment of families that has both the necessary economic resources and an educational background. There are a few girls from the middle classes in all of the colleges, but more in East Pakistan than in the west sector. The colleges are strongly urged to accept applicants from the middle classes who are eligible.

The Need for Home Economics in Rural and Urban Villages

If home economics is ever to serve a wider segment of society than is presently the case (and we all sincerely hope it can), it must furnish teachers, many of them for the middle and secondary schools. Unless many more students can be admitted to the colleges from the middle classes, students who themselves come from villages and will return to them to work, it is difficult to imagine how home economics can serve a wider range of families. As indicated earlier, far too few girls in the villages are equipped educationally to be admitted to upper secondary schools or to colleges. The lack of preliminary education is a serious problem in itself, but it is further complicated by observance of purdah, by marriages arranged at very early ages, and by negative parental attitudes toward education for girls that has to be obtained away from the home community. Even if the economic situation could be solved by government scholarships, the other factors outweigh the costs. It appears that some new plan will have to be devised that can bring education in home economics closer to village girls and women.

Short courses of different lengths have been arranged at the home economics colleges for teachers from the villages, which were financed entirely by the government, or entirely by the Ford Foundation with the understanding that they would return to teach in the school from which they came. Other short courses have been offered to girls with secondary education in the hope that they would teach in the village schools. If sufficient personnel were available with some degree of training classes might be organized in the villages themselves.

Even if government scholarships were provided and the other hurdles set aside, there is a lack of incentive on the part of girls and their parents to work outside of the home. This is hard to overcome because of cultural customs. At the present time in Pakistan the majority of parents in the upper and middle classes do not approve the employment of their daughters before marriage. Parents are fearful that if their daughters follow a vocation that it will make it difficult for them to find a suitable husband who is of equal status. This is not always true in the lower middle classes, but in these groups school preparation is lacking. Occasionally there are exceptions to such parental objections, but any generalization about change in respect to parental attitudes is unwarranted at this time.

The sense of urgency was often heightened by "advice to advisers." Both Pakistani and American educators and officials, and some well meaning citizens, often inquired with critical overtones what home economics was doing for the urban and rural villages, who really needed what home economics had to offer. If there were village girls with sufficient schooling and whose parents would permit them to live in a college hostel it is highly probable that scholarships could be secured for them from the government, foundations, or interested citizens. The Muslim customs are against such proposals. On the other hand, city girls who have either secondary school and/or college preparation are not permitted by their parents to go to the villages to teach. There are no suitable places for such young women to live in primitive villages, unless by chance they could live with relatives . In this society parents throw a cloak of protection around their daughters, and women in purdah have little or no association with men outside of their families and relatives. One medical missionary project and one Swedish family planning project utilized mobile units to overcome these difficulties. Practical proposals or directions were never forthcoming from the critics.

India has a very successful rural development program, but a similar program was terminated in Pakistan by the government some five years ago. A program of this type appears to be the most practical way to bring home economics to the village people. Pakistan has two rural development academies, on in each sector. In the east province a rather limited women's program has been initiated by the academy. In order to secure the permission of the men for their wives to participate in the program it is necessary to work through the the cooperative societies. The finding of feasible methods for working with village women was explored with officials many times, but no satisfactory answers were found by the summer of 1964.

Training Foreign Students in the U.S.

Let us turn to the training of foreign students in United States. If American institutions are to continue to accept large numbers of students from developing countries for training for leadership positions I keep wondering if somewhere an imaginative program cannot be dreamed up that might be more appropriate for the situations to which students return. In general, foreign students are expected to meet the same requirements as other students and to follow the same course materials and procedures. Seldom are departures from the normal pattern permitted. Is it not possible to exact the same degree of scholarship using materials that are more suitable for use in foreign institutions? There is often little patience with deficiencies in written and spoken English. Turn over the coin. When Americans attempt to learn a foreign language in a few months do you think they use the new language fluently or accurately, or even use it at all? Have you not heard faculty members complain about the extra time that is required in counselling foreign students?

I do not feel that home economics can be an effective force in international education until there is more attention given to a two-way process. Our programs in home economics are rooted in American family life. It is not our purpose to westernize our foreign students. I have heard it said many times that the responsibility for adapting American ideas, knowledge, concepts, and skills rests with the foreign student. Does it necessarily down-grade our courses if attention is given to adaptations to a different culture? Perhaps some knowledge of other cultures would add depth and breadth to courses for American students and encourage world understanding.

There is considerable evidence that students from developing countries raise their sights and change their standards of living. They like our way of life and the material things that go with it, but our standards of living are not attainable for the vast majority in the developing countries at present. Their economy cannot provide the kind of living which the students experience while they are here. Is it too much to hope that some American institution will experiment with a distinctive program for foreign students that is as demanding intellectually as any traditional program, but more useful for leaders in the institutions of developing countries.

In Pakistan women are not involved in the economic life of the nation to any extent except as homemakers. A few women are represented in the professions, with the largest number being in medicine. The changing attitude toward women's education is an indication that the government has begun to recognize the advantage of gainful employment for women. Occupations for home economics students, other than teaching, had not opened up to any extent by 1964. Perhaps it might be worthwhile to send a so-called "promoter adviser" to investigate with native personnel the possibilities for positions in new areas. Hospitals desperately need to improve food services. There are numerous government agencies supporting nutrition programs and industrial feeding programs which should use trained nutritionists, and there are social agencies which need the services of trained dietitians. There is great interest in nutrition in general, but the need for trained dietitians in key positions has not been recognized. If the cooperation of the large number of women physicians in hospitals, public health, and in private practice could be secured, the field of dietitics might be developed. The large number of child care centers and nursery schools are in sad need of personnel with some training in child development. There is need for laboratory technicians in the textile and food industries. In a country where women are emerging from purdah very slowly, the employment of women will come gradually, but it will come if promoted judiciously.

Improving the Position of Women in Pakistan

From my point of view the All Pakistan Women's Association, called APWA, provides one of the bright hopes for raising the status of women. This lively, vigorous, national organization has developed over the last 12 to 15 years. Its chief objective is to better the position of Pakistan's women. It is composed of aggressive, social minded leaders many of whom were educated in England and the United States. The organization has been successful in obtaining grants from both national and foreign sources to establish schools, colleges and industrial centers for women. It was in fact responsible for the first Ford Foundation grant for the establishment of the Karachi College of Home Economics. The main purpose of the industrial centers is to provide training in handicrafts for middle and lower income groups to enable women to earn by producing articles at home. APWA also set up sales shops in the principal cities as outlets for the sale of these home handicrafts. The organization has been eminently successful in these undertakings.

In the past five years the organization has added a new dimension to its program by taking leadership in social legislation. It is this dimension I want to emphasize at this time. Through an exceedingly strenuous campaign in 1961 the organization undertook to secure better legal protection of women through new legislation. The members were rewarded by the enactment of a new set of family laws dealing with polygamy, marriage, divorce, custody of children, inheritance, and court procedures. In less than one year proposals were made in the new provincial assemblies to repeal the laws, which were considered of such great benefit to women. The members of APWA put on such an amazing storm of protest in such large numbers and with such an amazing storm of protest in such large numbers and with such forceful arguments that the laws were not repealed. Remember all this was flying in the face of Muslim customs and traditions for women.

Because of the leadership of this organization the new constitution provides six seats for women in each provincial assembly. While this is only a token recognition of women in government it is nevertheless a beginning, and women have their feet in the door. These and other activities indicate that educated women are beginning to assert themselves on matters that concern them and their families through social welfare projects and through government and legislation. The increasing participation of women in public affairs indicates that the role of women is changing.

How I wished at times that the women in education, especially in home economics, had that kind of fearless leadership. Women in education are under government jurisdiction and the hierarchy of educational officials does not encourage such aggressive action by the personnel of women's institutions.

As home economics moves forward in international education I trust its quality and effectiveness will match its growth.

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Education Extension Centers, Lahore and Dacca Academies for Rural Development, Comilla and Peshawar

Four Regional Research Laboratories - Karachi, Lahore, Dacca and Peshawar

Pakistan Planning Commission Economic research and studies, Karachi

Social Science Research Center, Punyah University, Lahore

All Pakistan Women's Association, Karachi

American agencies such as UNESCO, U.N., UNICEF, CARE, AID, FAO

Asia Foundation

Central Statistical Bureau

OPPORTUNITIES FOR HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION IN SOUTH AMERICA

by Floyd Andre*

Introduction

Some probably have had more background and experience and are more knowledgeable as to the role and status of women in other countries than I. I doubt, however, that many would disagree with the fact that women have a very high status here in the United States. You would agree, too, I am sure, that there are several recognized women's professions in this country, such as the teaching profession, the secretarial profession, the nursing profession, and the home economics profession -- to name just a few.

This is not the case in some foreign countries, however. was much surprised, for example, to find that the nursing profession is not held in nearly so high regard in Argentina as in this country. Yet for men, the medical profession and the legal profession are actually the two most highly regarded professions in Argentina, even though some educated for these never practice a single day.

Most of you would agree, too, with the view that here in this country education is the great leveler. By this I mean that regardless of a person's previous economic status, equally qualified men or women have more or less the same opportunities for employment in similar jobs.

In discussing the topic -- "Opportunities for Home Economics Education in South America" -- one must first recognize that the status of women is coming up some in certain Latin American countries. This is particularly true as these countries industrialize and become more urban.

My comments are based mainly on my experiences in Brazil, Argentina, Uruguay, Peru, and Paraguay and on the observations of several staff members from the College of Agriculture who have been on various assignments in these same Latin American countries. As background, I will mention just briefly something about elementary and secondary schooling in Latin America and also something about the university system and degrees offered. Then I would like to discuss in more detail some of the opportunities for specialization in the home economics field and the clientele for trained home economists in certain Latin American countries. It is in this last area -- where we consider with whom the person trained in home economics would work -- that we can most clearly see the challenge in the development of more opportunities for home economics education in Latin America.

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Elementary and Secondary Schooling

The elementary and secondary schools vary somewhat between public and private schools and among countries. In general, however, there is a system which allows young people to obtain about 12 years of education if they attend school that long -- five of which might be at the high school level. Even though grade schools -- perhaps through the fourth grade -- are available to many in the population, high schools are mostly available to those living in cities. This means that the young men and women completing high school work have either been raised in cities or their families have sufficient means that they can be sent to cities or kept in cities for their high school training. The fact that many country children -- both boys and girls -- have no opportunity for high school education is, of course, a real handicap to educational work.

After completion of the seventh grade or equal, some students enroll in the regular five-year high schools. Because of crowded conditions, the schools run in shifts and the more fortunate students might attend a Spanish or Portuguese school in the morning and an English or French school in the afternoon or vice versa. In the case of some boys, an opportunity might be provided at this time to go to a specialized high school. In a few instances, this might happen to the girls, but the opportunities are rather rare.

University System and Degrees Offered

A typical degree for an agriculturally trained person in a Latin American university is an "Ingeniero Agronomo" degree. For those specializing in animal science, a "Doctor of Veterinary Medicine" can be obtained. As far as I am aware, Argentina, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Peru do not offer degrees in home economics. In recent years, however, home economics degree programs have been developed in Brazil. I will mention this in more detail a little later.

Opportunties for Specialization in Home Economics

Argentina

After they have completed a five-year high school the most comprehensive school for girls to learn about home economics in Argentina is at Bolivar. There these girls study in school for a year and are given such subjects as general agriculture, horticulture, cheesemaking, poultry production and management, bee culture, canning and preservation of fruits and vegetables, and quantity cookery. Besides these subjects, the girls devote a certain amount of time to manual labor. Nevertheless, most of the girls that complete this course are able to find jobs in extension work or go back to high schools to teach home economics.

Peru

In Peru there is a Department of Domestic Science within the Faculty of Social Science in the Agrarian University at La Molina. At the university level some girls also follow more or less scientific curricula and often switch from scientific subjects such as botany to social science when they wish to become extension workers. Extension work by women is appreciated and viewed somewhat in the sense that we would view a social worker -- not a professional home economist.

Unless the church helps or at least cooperates on the education of women for the home, progress is likely to be slow. Several good examples of cooperation are now extant.

Little "breaks" sometimes make a big difference in the success of a program. At the San Lorenzo land reform project in Peru, a school was established for youngsters so that they could learn to read and write. Then a reading and writing program was offered to the mothers. At first none of the mothers appeared for class. But as the children progressed in reading, the mothers started coming -- some walking several miles to learn to read and write.

Brazil

As I mentioned earlier, there are degree-granting programs in home economics at the university level in Brazil. The first institution to grant degrees in home economics was the Rural University of the State of Minas Geràis, beginning in 1957. Since the establishment of the program there, a home economics school has been developed at Pelotas. One was scheduled to start at Piracicaba in 1965 and another at Ceara in 1966.

The program at the Rural University has been developed with the assistance of staff members from Purdue University. Six main areas of work are taught: nutrition, clothing, housing, child care and nursing, education, and home management. When Dr. Marvin Anderson, Dr. Leslie Johnson, and I were at the Rural University last summer we felt the entrance requirements and the course offerings indicated that the school was providing good home economics training at the university level.

Uruguay

The College of Agriculture here at Iowa State has a contract in Uruguay, and our work there has been chiefly with the Faculty of Agriculture of the National University of Uruguay. Apparently, the only place that work related to home economics -- as we think of this field -- is given at the National University of Uruguay is in the Faculty of Medicine and the Faculty of Science. In the Faculty of Medicine, work is offered in child care and in the field of dietetics; the Faculty of Science offers work in the general field of social service, especially with regard to delinquency. Interestingly enough, the students of the Faculty of Medicine and the Faculty of Agriculture have a club or group which voluntarily gives its services for the improvement of sanitiation facilities in rural areas of Uruguay.

Two schools in Uruguay offer home economics training at the high school level. One of these is part of the Crandol Institute, a private high school located in Montevideo, and the other is a specialized high school located in Colonia Suiza.

A number of years ago some specialized training in social science relating to the home economics field was offered at one of the specialized high schools called San Ramon. About 25 girls were trained by international organizations for the home economics field while this program was active. These girls were from four different countries including Uruguay; thus you can see that the effect of people trained from this program would be limited.

In Uruguay, too, there is a system of high schools under an organization call the Universidad del Trabajo. In one sense these are specialized high schools, and for boys they offer work in such specialities as beef production, poultry production, horticulture production, and other subjects. At least two of the schools in this system also have specialized training for girls which would correspond roughly to a three-year high school program in the field of home economics.

Clientele for Home Economics Workers

As one can readily understand, the opportunities are limited for specializing in home economics at the university level in Latin America. But this does not mean in any sense that there is not a need for trained home economists. Actually, the need for personnel trained in home economics is great in Latin America, and an awareness of this need is gradually developing, especially as extension activities are being set up in several countries. A look at some of the extension programs and their clientele may point out some of the problems confronting workers in the home economics field.

Certain centers have been developed in Latin America from which extension educational programs are carried out. The pattern in many instances is somewhat like that which we have come to follow in the United States. By this I mean a unit setup in which one would find a unit extension leader, a unit youth assistant, and a unit home economist.

Argentina

In the great agricultural region of Argentina called the Pampa, the center of these extension activities is at a place called Pergamino. The extension workers for home economics are young women who have completed a five-year high school and perhaps have had three weeks to a few months of special training in home economics. On a unit basis, these girls find themselves working with a clientele which has had an average schooling of three years.

This presents a real challenge to the home economics extension specialist. One of the major handicaps which she must overcome is to keep the clientele interested in educational subjects. This is not too much different, however, from what often is true in this country -- the women are especially interested in making things which they can take home to show to their family, such as purses, clothing, and canned fruits and vegetables. It is much more difficult for the extension worker to encourage them to go into such problems as sanitation, getting running water in the homes, and other major problems.

Another problem is that these women who constitute the clientele will always say that there are no nutritional problems in Argentina. Actually, what they mean by this statement is that people are not hungry. Certainly there are nutritional problems.

The clientele served by extension centers out from Pergamino reside on middle-size family farms -- composed of 200 to 300 acres -- with about 2/3 of the families in the extension programs being owners. Few of the families would be considered poor families. It is also interesting to note that there is little connection between the programs for men -- which might deal with hybrid corn, machinery, and management problems -- and the programs carried on for women.

The wives of these farmers -- or in other words the women's extension audience -- see little opportunity for their sons or daughters to attend high school, but they do see opportunities for their children to finish the seventh or eighth grade versus the third grade. This clientele in general knows what extension is and what an extension worker is, but it probably does not appreciate too much what a home economist is. An extension worker going into a new area to develop a home economics program has to break down the closed community philosophy. When this is done, the extension program can be carried forward.

Brazil

In Brazil similar extension programs have been developed with encouragement from the national government of Brazil as well as state governments. Many of the same problems confront extension workers, especially in the home economics field, as is true in Argentina. One very significant difference in Brazil, however, is the fact that there are degree-granting programs in home economics.

One of the most interesting extension programs in Brazil is being carried on by a home economics specialist in the city of Belo Horizonte. This home economist has set up a program for young women who have secretarial jobs in Belo Horizonte. The program is set up for a period of two weeks with girls attending class from 5 to 9 p.m. each working day and is conducted at four locations in the city. The purpose of this program is to train these young women particularly in nutrition and also in such areas as sanitation and clothing. The home economist responsible for this program has done such a good job that an effort is being made to have her set up similar programs for training girls to work as home economists in the rural areas.

Uruguay

In Uruguay the level of education obtained by women is perhaps higher than in other Latin American countries. The information available on this particular question of level of education attained would indicate that the average wife on a farm would have attained more than a primary education, presumably more than seventh grade. The level of this education is increasing at a fairly rapid rate, so that home economists in some localities might be working with women that had at least a year or two of high school.

In Uruguay, also, there are several areas where large ranches have been broken up into smaller units. The operators of these smaller units have been carefully selected, and if an extension worker in the home economics field were fortunate enough to work in an area of this kind, the participation in the programs might have a chance to be especially successful. Certainly some of the same needs exist for home economics help in such areas as sanitation, nutrition, child development, and home management as in other countries.

Paraguay

In Paraguay there are 16 extension centers,. several of which have home economics leaders. The main problem for these extension workers is one of transportation. In some instances, they even need to rely on bicycles as a mode of getting places.

Conclusion

In summary, I am sure you will agree that there are many needs and many opportunities for people trained in the home economics field in Latin America. Moreover, the level of education of women is going upward in these countries. Since mothers have a tremendous influence in encouraging their children toward education, the role of home economics and home economics specialists will become increasingly important.

SIGNIFICANT ROLES OF HOME ECONOMICS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

by Dorothy H. Jacobson*

Home economists attending this conference face a great challenge. In examining your role in developing countries you touch upon one of the major problems, if not the major problem, in the world today. Your potential impact on this problem depends upon whether you do more than touch the subject, whether you face it squarely and contribute your utmost to its solution.

As I see the scope of your profession, it includes concern for the sources and uses of food. It certainly has demonstrated its effectiveness in elevating the role of homemaker and the status of women to one of recognition and of dignity. All that you do is directed toward making the most of human resources in families and in communities. Since all economic development efforts must be directed toward the development of human resources if the result is to be worth while, your profession is a most strategic one. Without the knowledge, the skill, and the ability of your profession, we will not be able to solve the major problem that the world faces today.

This problem involves the race between population and food supply. It has recently appeared in the headlines -- attracting more attention and arousing more concern than at any time since Malthus first predicted that population would outrun the world's supply of food.

Quite recently Raymond Ewell, the vice president of New York State University, declared that if present trends continue, the world will face within 10 years a famine of catastrophic proportions, a famine the like of which has not been known before. We have had famines in history when millions died, but never when billions were threatened. Recently Gunnar Myrdal, the well-known Swedish economist, forecast the same kind of dire consequences in a speech headlined throughout this country.

The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations is very much concerned about making effective a freedom-from-hunger campaign that will forestall these dire threats. To this end it has published many facts available on the extent of hunger and malnutrition in the world. These show, for example, that two-thirds of the world's population lives in countries where hunger and malnutrition are prevalent; that in these countries perhaps 50 per cent of the pre-school children are suffering so badly from malnutrition that it seriously handicaps both their physical and mental development in ways that scientists now believe may be irreversible even if the children get better nutrition in later years. These are just some measures of the dimensions of the problem.

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These facts seem paradoxical to us in the United States, who have lived for decades with agricultural surpluses. We are still plagued with the paradox of surplus and scarcity. We ask ourselves why this should be and how it can be remedied. But the reason, of course, is simple to state. The consumption of food depends on two things: first, on the need, and, second, on the ability either to produce or buy. The ability to produce or buy food needed in the developing countries -- the ones where hunger is common -- depends upon their over-all development.

I don't happen to be quite as pessimistic as those whom I cited earlier. I shall try to tell you why. But in saying that I am not quite so pessimistic, please do not conclude that I think the problem is not serious. We in the U.S. government agencies concerned with the problem have been studying intensively for many months what our policy ought to be in the face of this potential crisis in world food supply. Should we plan to produce more, now that we have 50 or 60 million acres taken out of production? And if we produce more, can we produce enough in the years ahead? And if we can, should we plan to supply this food in the form of aid? We hope to come up with some answers. Whether we can do this, or should do this, depends upon a number of things.

Whether we can supply the gap in the world needs for food 10 years from now depends in part upon whether we can finance the shipping of the vast quantities of food that will be needed. It also depends on whether countries that need this food have the facilities to receive it, to transport it, to store it, and to utilize it. Only a few months ago the intensity of the problem was dramatically illustrated to us in the Department of Agriculture. You may remember that we had a shipping strike. India is so dependent on the wheat constantly being shipped under our Food-for-Peace Program that if the ships fail to come in one week, food riots threaten and people hoard. I am not now talking about the speculator who hopes to make profits out of somebody's hunger; I am talking about the little guy who reads that ships are not being loaded in America and who tries to buy two week's rice instead of one week's rice, with the result that supplies are exhausted. Last spring the people in the Department of Agriculture who are concerned with these things worked late at night to try to find ships somewhere on the sea, loaded with wheat, ships that could be diverted to India. They promised to replace the wheat to the areas where the ships were originally going after the shipping strike was over. So you see the problem of facilities is serious.

Some Generalizations on the Food Situation

We hope to come up with the most helpful and constructive answers that we can find. However, certain things are clear:

1. In most of the less developed world, per capita production of food is not keeping up with the rapid increase in population.

2. Regardless of how great the U. S. food supply may be and how great our productive capacity is, food aid is not the final solution. Neither the United States nor the countries that receive our Food for Peace ($14,000,000,000 in the past 10 years) want the permanent solution to be a permanent dependence on some other country. While Food for Peace can help in the interim, it is not the final answer.

3. The demands for food will increase faster than the population -- and they should: as incomes increase in the developing parts of the world, the first new demand is for food. Now this wouldn't happen here. Most of us eat too much already; and if our incomes doubled, we might buy twice as many cars or clothes , or houses; heaven forbid that we should eat twice as much food! But this is not true in the countries where the majority of the people are hungry. When incomes rise a little in such countries, demand for food increases. Thus they need and should have more food per capita than they have now.

4. We need to be concerned with the quality as well as the quantity of food There are millions of people in the world today whose diets furnish enough calories, but who are being physically and mentally harmed because such diets do not provide enough protein. In this connection, health authorities now say that most important for the health of the world -- more important than fighting disease -- is the raising of the level of nutrition of pre-school children in many areas. And yet, one of our best experts on protein foods commented the other day that the world is now wasting as much vegetable protein as the total protein consumed. Through modern science and technology vegetable protein can be fortified to make it nutritionally about equal to animal protein.

5. The real solution must lie in the ability of the developing countries themselves to increase their own agricultural productivity and to upgrade their own rural communities. However, during the time that we try to reach the goal, food aid of the kind we have in our Food-for-Peace Program will be absolutely essential.

This problem of providing enough food for the world's people is a problem that we must solve. To achieve victory for humanity we must win this race between population and food supply. We must do this -- if only because we can. For the first time in history, the revolution of science and technology has progressed so far that the door is open to an age of abundance. This has never been true before. Since civilization began, and before, men and women have tried hard to gain enough food to live. First families and then tribes and then nations have fought for fertile valleys, for places that could produce food. For the first time in history this is not necessary. Moreover, we can have abundance in many other fields; I am highlighting food because it is the most immediately urgent.

We have seen this abundance in the United States in agricultural commodities. We have seen the Secretary of Agriculture being cartooned as a little man with his feet sticking out from under a big stockpile of grain. We have seen and heard these surpluses regarded as evidences of something wrong. Few of us realize that our surplus capacity in industry is increasing too. It hasn't increased as fast as in agriculture and it manifests itself differently. Surplus productive capacity in steel at times has been far greater than our surplus capacity in agriculture. But this is not evidenced by stockpiles of steel; it only results in unemployment. If industry doesn't find markets, it lays off workers. I would suggest that if anything is more indicative of failure in an affluent society than stockpiles of grain, it is a surplus of human beings, trying unsuccessfully to find constructive work. We are fighting both of these problems here, and they illustrate the possibility of abundance that scientists tell us could be achieved.

Just think for a moment what the achievement of abundance would mean in a rational society and in a rational world. The new discoveries, the great new power that has come into the hands of men in the past few years, can be used for good as well as for evil. The same power that can destroy cities can light a million homes. If we knew how to organize ourselves so as to make the most of this abundance we could have the kind of rational world in which machines would perform all the monotonous tasks and the drudgery, and men and women would be free to pursue those tasks and to try to achieve those things of which we can never imagine a surplus -- education, recreation, the arts, and culture. That would really be a Great Society.

The physical sciences have done their part. It's up to the social sciences and education to catch up. And the biggest roadblock, of course, is ignorance. The ignorance today is not of the physical sciences, but of how to use the new knowledge. There is ignorance not only on the part of those in some countries who don't know how to make two blades of grass grow where one grew before -- but ignorance on the part of the statesmen, politicians, educators, and leaders in this country and other countries. There is ignorance of how to go about to achieve what is possible. This is our challenge!

The Role of Home Economics Leaders

Now let's consider your role as leaders in a profession deeply concerned with human well-being, a role so essential that without it we cannot meet the challenge that I have tried to picture. I can't give you a blueprint as to how to fulfill this role; you know much more about it than I do. But I would like to suggest several approaches that could help you draft your blueprints for meeting the challenge.

Adapting to Rapid Change

First, I think we need to remind ourselves and recognize the demands that are called for by the accelerated rate of change taking place in the world today. When I say that the social scientists, the social engineers, haven't caught up with the physical engineers, I am referring to that tremendous rate of change.

Let's try to picture how great this acceleration has been in our lifetime. If you are like me, you have difficulty visualizing thousands of years. But most of us (some of us too clearly) can recognize 50. Thus if your compress the 50 thousands years of which we know something about the development of man on this earth into 50 years , we can get a picture of the kind of progress made.

We know practically nothing about what happened in the first 40 years of this 50-year lifetime. But 10 years ago the most advanced men in a few parts of the world were beginning to come out of their caves, were building crude shelters, and, in cold climates, were beginning to use the skins of animals for clothing. About five years ago, 45 years having passed, the most advanced of men, in only a few parts of the world, were beginning to learn to write. We have records going back five years.

Only two years ago was the advent of Christianity. The industrial revolution, which we look at as having brought about our modern society, came six or seven months ago (49 1/2 years having passed.) Six or seven weeks ago we got the automobile and electricity. Last week we got atomic power.

Now you are economists enough to draw curves. A curve of this progress would go up very slowly for a very long way, and would shoot up abruptly at the end. It would clearly demonstrate that changes have never taken place so fast in the world before. One of these changes is the potential for abundance. The old rules of scarcity that have developed through the centuries may not be valid in an age of abundance.

Let's get a little more down to earth. Perhaps the old systems of extension education need not only to be adopted but adapted to the rapid changes that are taking place today. I would like to insert here how greatly I regard the extension kind of education that you have developed.

I will never forget the first trip I took into an underdeveloped country. I was talking to a leader in one of those countries who said, " We appreciate the money you send us (and it has been considerable); we appreciate the food you send (and that, no doubt, had prevented a lot of hunger); but the best thing you have sent us is the idea of your extension system. And we have appreciated this so much (he proudly told me) that we are now providing transportation for our extension workers -- half of them now have bicycles."

Reaching the Masses

A second approach to which I think attention should be called is the recognition that this problem of making abundance available to all, or more immediately of providing enough food to prevent dire consequences, will be solved only if millions, yes, billions, of ordinary people are reached. Important as it is, higher education is not enough. We must learn how to reach the people, the billions of people in the barrios and in the villages, and most importantly, how to reach into their homes. This is where I think your profession is needed very greatly.

A home economist told me of a village where workers had tried very hard to teach mothers to boil water. Fuel was somewhat scarce and you really had to convince a mother that boiling water was worthwhile in order to get her to do it. Some bright young person got an idea; she got a little glass marble, a little agate, and gave it to one of the mothers. She said, "if you put that in your pot and boil that little magic marble for 20 minutes, your babies won't get sick. The mother boiled the magic marble for 20 minutes and the babies didn't get sick. I thought when I heard this, "How clever!" But I was startled to learn that somewhere higher up the person who had conceived this idea was severely reprimanded. "You don't teach this way; you must not; they have enough myths as it is; they have enough ideas that aren't so. Don't teach them any new myths or magic!"

The question that faced those workers was: What do you do? Do you teach them another myth or do you let the children die? We need all kinds of research to develop a good, all-purpose food that can be produced cheaply enough to correct this protein malnutrition; we also need research, help, knowledge, and guidance as to how to adapt these foods to the tastes, customs, and taboos of the people that need this help. Most of all, it seems to me, we need to know more about how to reach the millions of mothers who care for the children who need the food.

Influencing U.S. Policy and Public Opinion

Thirdly, and perhaps a little closer to home, I would like to suggest that you recognize and accept a role which you can fill as leaders in influencing policy and public opinion here in the United States. You are all leaders in your communities. I think we seldom recognize how much public opinion is influenced by the attitudes of the homemakers, and how much it can be influenced by you. If the United States accepts the challenge to try to avert the crisis that could come in the decade or so ahead government policies geared to that end will be required. Sometimes people who are charged with drafting and formulating the government policy come up with ideas that they believe would solve the problem, only to find that the American public does not accept them, will not support them and stand up for them. To get the United States to adopt the right kind of policy, the most constructive kind of policy in circumstances like this, demands the support of public opinion that only leadership like yours can bring about.

I have often illustrated this need by recalling the days when I used to be in the peaceful job of teaching political science. At registration we sat next to the teachers of physics. This was shortly after the end of World War II, and during the quiet moments between the rushes of registration the physics professors would chide us political scientists. First they said, "You haven't got a science (and I would certainly agree to that)." Secondly, they asked a question that has long been asked by thinking people: "Why is it that the physicists were able to develop an atomic bomb and the political scientists and the statesmen of the world have not been able to bring about a society in which that bomb is safe?" They suggested that it was probably because the physicists were smarter than the political scientists and the statesmen.

I wouldn't argue that point, but I did suggest that there was a much more important reason than that. It didn't matter to the people on whom that bomb dropped whether they understood nuclear physics; it doesn't matter to the millions of people who are saved today from malaria and other diseases whether they understand anything about the medical and scientific wonders that have been accomplished. But to create the kind of political, economic, and social conditions in government policies that will enable us to turn that nuclear power into good and instead of ill -- this requires the understanding and support of millions of people in a democratic country like ours. And this is why influencing public opinion is so urgent that it must, in my opinion, be considered by leaders in all fields. In your field you are specifically concerned.

In accepting this role of leadership and accepting this challenge you will be involving yourself in one of the most important, the most challenging, and the most exciting conquests of any new frontier ever encountered in this world's history.

It is probably true that the whole history of the next century will be determined by the way by which the developing countries can enter into an industrial age, into the age of abundance that science and technology have made possible. What can be done has been determined by the scientific and technological advance already achieved. What will be done in the years immediately ahead will be determined by the educators, the molders of public opinion, the people, the statesmen, and even the politicans--but particularly by the educators.

If we achieve what can be done, we can help to usher in an era of abundance that will make possible both peace and freedom. We can have in the United States, and in the world, a really Great Society.

THE ROLE OF HOME ECONOMICS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

by Elton L. Johnson*

I am hopeful that this, the International Cooperation Year, will mark a new era for activities in home economics throughout the world. Recently, I have been privileged to learn more regarding the role of the home economist, and I have been impressed by the many contributions you have made to the American way of life. I will recognize the many years of diligent efforts required to reach the present stage of development in home economics activities in these United States. Yours has not been an easy task, nor one filled with glory by large headlines in the press. Nevertheless, you have contributed greatly to both our economy and our cultural heritage.

In considering your role in international development, I am impressed with the difficulty of mounting programs that would be of significant magnitude. We are aware of the diversity of cultures and obstacles to change in many of the developing countries. In any given country the setting of the task at hand presents both a challenge and an opportunity for home economics activities.

It is difficult to visualize the adaptation required in your tasks abroad. Those of us outside your professional area have a limited concept of your U.S. activities. The academic presentations in formal courses are easy to visualize, but other significant portions of your program are not understood by the public. We acknowledge your leadership and participation in institution building and community development. Unfortunately, we are not sufficiently well aware of the planning, daily activities, supporting groups, available human resources, and the myriad of other details and facilities essential to your successful program.

We have taken for granted your accomplishments in the U.S. environment without being aware of the role of the associated factors and daily activities. As we consider the international dimension we become aware of the difficulty in implementing appropriate overseas programs. It is at this point those responsible for broad educational and developmental programs must turn to you for advice and planning for specific programs in Thailand, Formosa, Brazil, Colombia, India or any other country where we are cooperating to accelerate economic and human resource development.

Questions will be asked that are difficult to answer. Among such are: _What_ institutions are best suited to development of significant programs in home economics? _What_ should be the scope and objectives of a program? _What_ role beyond the on-campus classroom instruction should the home economist play in the school community, the immediate vicinity, and in the rural area? _What_ is the minimum program worthy of consideration? _What_ resources already in existence -- human as well as economic -- are readily adaptable to a forward looking program? Will additional resources be adequate for program effectiveness such as staffing requirements, institutional support, financial support, community support, and national support? What is the likelihood of success in the programs?

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These are but a few of the numerous questions in need of answers for the initial planning and development of a program. I will comment briefly on just a few relevant ideas that, hopefully, will stimulate further thought.

My last question pertaining to success represents a critical issue. There exists the interpretation of success from the viewpoint of: (1) the U.S. institution, (2) the host country and institution, and (3) the U.S. government. The same guidelines and criteria are not used by each group -- as you are well aware.

We should continue to question whether an overseas activity provides a lasting benefit to our own institution as well as the host institution. It is not enough to provide replacement or supplementary staff members for teaching and extension in a program which will revert to the original pattern when our personnel and resources are withdrawn.

It has been suggested that international home economics activities have not been given adequate attention in certain institutions and some offices of our federal agencies. I am certain other entities within our academic institutions have had similar feelings. I can only say at this point that aggressiveness in communications and strength in program proposals are paramount if you are to have your talents appreciated and appropriately utilized. It is important to persist in the face of indifference and unfounded administrative resistance.

The development of a program that will be perpetuated and constantly improved should be the goal of every home economics program in a developing country. We must create an awareness of the necessity for continuous training and service in higher education to serve the cultural and economic needs of the people.

Getting people to accept this philosophy is not a simple matter of escorting them to the operating room, employing a pleasant anaesthetic, and a syringe with a sharp needle to assure penetration of the subject material. The educational process never has been and probably never will be a rapid, painless endeavor.

Consequently, a successful international program will invariably include a systematic process to communicate the needs for and benefits of the home economics activity.

Fortunately, your professional field embraces a wide spectrum. I'm particularly impressed by your opportunities to educate outside the formal classroom -- especially with the many problems related to family and community development. The development of a country -- both rural and urban -- is heavily dependent upon changes in family attitudes and activities. Dr. Frances Zuill expressed pride, and rightly so, in the fact that home economics in our country is based in the family. We should strive for strength on a similar base in our cooperative work in developing countries.

Your contributions to family education and especially to the women no longer in school represent a challenge of the first order. I recognize your international resources will be lacking in trained personnel. This shortage will be in both U.S. personnel and nationals of the host country.

Every effort must be made to train foreign nationals so they may multiply your accomplishments. All types of training opportunities must be utilized, from the formal classroom to a typical on-the-job method.

I need not remind you of your influence in instilling the desire and in suggesting the means for higher educational and cultural goals in our American families. I can only urge you to strive for similar accomplishments in our cooperative efforts with our developing neighbors. Since your influence is felt most strongly by the fairer sex in our developing societies I would like to repeat a thought of Mr. Paul Hoffman, managing director of the United Nations Special Fund. Mr. Hoffman indicated at a luncheon in the U.N. building in New York City that he felt a developing nation is only as good as its women.

With this thought in mind I wish to thank you for your long list of accomplishments with American women and your equally inspiring accomplishments with American men. I have great confidence that you will continue to exhibit high levels of achievement in other countries.

THE SIGNIFICANT ROLE OF EDUCATION FOR THE HOME IN UNDERDEVELOPED COUNTRIES

by Graciela Quan Valenzuela*

Human Resources and National Progress

The conviction that the development of a country is directly related to the development of its human resources is one of the reasons why the developing countries are demonstrating an extraordinary effort in mobilizing their human resources and in trying to convert them into a dynamic factor of self-improvement, general progress, and collective improvement. It is the greatest and most important task which faces the Latin American countries, and it is being brought about by means of public education.

In spite of the fact that this education is free at almost all levels, and compulsory at the primary level, the educational services in the Latin American countries have not been sufficient to cover all the social sectors in the quality and quantity which are needed. This is why the illiteracy that still exists is enthusiastically being attacked. Primary education, accessible to the greatest number of persons, is being revised in order to give to the individual a fundamental basis by which to meet his essential needs and those of the community in which he lives. Secondary education is being reoriented realistically in order that it does not continue to be only a preparation for the university. Because only a minimum percentage of students arrive at the university, the great majority are frustrated and without a definite orientation for other studies not of a university nature. The universities also are breaking the stratified patterns they have maintained for centuries and are beginning to serve their communities and establish new career opportunities which permit them to assume their function of scientific and professional leadership which modern society requires.

Unfortunately the limitation of economic resources involved and the high rate of population growth in Latin America prevent this educational reform from being carried out with the speed, breadth, and efficiency desired.

There is, nevertheless, a hopeful sign which gives to this educational movement an impulse greater than ever before; the state no longer is alone in this task; private national groups and international organizations and agencies are sharing the responsibility of preparing human beings who are both the goal of the progress desired, and the means of achieving that goal. This conference on international home economics is an international contribution to the developing countries. The Overseas Education Fund of the League of Women Voters of the United States is an example of international cooperation in the field of civic-democratic education. We all know the magnitude of collaboration which the United Nations offers by means of its specialized organizations, the service which the Organization of American States gives regionally, and that which the government of the United States gives through its international services.

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But there is more: we must recognize the leadership which the international organizations, governmental or other, have provided in this vitalization of the educational process in Latin American countries. To verify this, it is enough to consider the regional centers of learning and research located throughout the entire continent, the technical assistance offered in numerous fields, the study groups at all levels which are going on continuously, the regional agreements which are made, and the financial collaboration which makes possible the adoption of new projects or the culmination or improvement of those already under way.

In its own way, private initiative is also making an effective contribution. Groups who previously were indifferent to the process of popular education have begun to give their support. Private industrial enterprises are beginning to organize centers of learning for their workers; they are offering education and are giving their cooperation to government in the founding and support of vocational and technical institutes. Churches are redoubling their educational efforts. Voluntary associations are multiplying their programs of direct instruction or are offering scholarships and, something especially important to us here, the women's groups have taken the leadership in efforts to improve the lot of women without lessening their efforts in other general interests.

This collaboration is very important since even when in principle the Latin American woman has access today to all the sources of education, there are aspects of her preparation which need to be stimulated by the women themselves because they are still not included in general education.

This emphasis on the improvement of women, all of us know today, does not imply narrow-mindedness nor egotistic interest. It means only a positive response to a negative situation: the disadvantage in which a woman finds herself in contrast to a man, no matter what the aspect analyzed -- social, economic, or cultural. Let us consider an example: when speaking of the human resources of a country, one doubtless includes the women, who constitute half of those resources; nevertheless, the governments of Latin American countries still do not consider adopting an educational policy which will make a special effort to minimize the disadvantage in which a woman finds herself as a result of having been denied educational opportunities enjoyed by men. Even considering the favorable impact which women could make in fields from which they have been excluded, efforts to widen educational training have not been successful.

Fortunately the knowledge of this official neglect is helping to create in women the awareness of their own power to promote action which will accelerate their entry into fields and activities in which they did not have access and, what is more important, which will permit them to revise their own attitudes in respect to their traditional functions.

Preparing Latin American Women for Leadership

One can say definitely that in all the Latin American countries there is a growing interest among women in making a contribution in such fields and activities. But in order to unite and orient women, leaders are necessary. So we believe that leadership is their most pressing need and that efforts must be focused first on the task of finding or preparing leaders.

It is not difficult to find women leaders now that the period is past when the education of women was suspected of being a move to replace men. No one doubts today that the interest of women in the life of the community is a social responsibility as well as the exercise of a legitimate right, and that the temporal emphasis which is placed on their education has its origin in the conviction that educated women can educate mankind.

In my opinion, there are three situations in which the Latin American woman most needs preparation for leadership: her role as a citizen, as a member of voluntary associations, and as the center of the family.

Because of the new status which she enjoys, now that her political rights are recognized, she can exercise her rights and fulfill her new responsibilities and at the same time continue performing her traditional functions.

The delay in recognizing woman's political rights was based for a long time on the fear that the exercise of such rights might alienate her or jeopardize the important responsibilities which she fulfills within the family. For this reason it should be recognized that her new condition as a citizen permits her to make ample and creative use of her political rights to promote interests which have always been within her sphere of operation, for instance the education of her children and the protection of their health, safety and well-being. These activities have passed from domestic jurisdiction to that of the community, which now offers them as public services. Thus woman ought to function as an effective member of this community.

In this era of cooperation, in which the influence of individuals is multiplied and made more effective when they work with others who share the same aspirations, the woman needs to act appropriately within the voluntary associations to which she belongs, which constitute a valuable instrument of social action.

Democratic education ought to be systematically promoted in Latin American countries which have adopted the democratic political system. Thus voluntary associations, besides being schools with social responsibilities, can be used as excellent laboratories for development of democratic institutions if properly oriented to serve this purpose.

With leadership, the women's associations (which are growing in greater proportion than those of men) as well as the mixed associations in which women function, will be able to have a positive influence in the development of Latin Americans.

As the center of the family woman can offer her most valuable social collaboration. Whether because of biological determinism or spiritual vocation, she is and will continue being the center of the family, that institution which, in spite of all crises and changes, can never be replaced successfully. She performs the role by protecting, caring for, educating, and orienting human beings. It is in this aspect that home economics education can play its most significant role in Latin America.

Helping Women to Realize Their Full Potential

Speaking in general terms, woman ought to be helped to validate herself. She needs basically to recognize her innate potentiality and the possibilities of developing it and applying it for her own and collective good.

While there are in all countries numerous advanced groups of women who know and take advantage fully of their capacities, there exist also many more who do not know their own potential for contributing to society and the value and necessity of this collaboration. They keep performing their traditional tasks with a passive and sometimes resigned attitude. They can do very little in a world in which they have been assigned routine and menial tasks in the home, tasks too modest or futile even to demand renumeration.

The woman knows the economic value of her personal work only when she engages in activities outside the home or, even in the home, in tasks which are not her own. And in a time in which the efficiency of the individual is usually judged according to earnings or salary, the woman must feel herself held down because upon crossing the boundaries of home to venture into the labor market, often without adequate preparation, she obtains only meager compensation for what she judges to be her own worth.

This first phase of work with woman gives home economics an excellent opportunity to collaborate significantly in countries under development. More specifically improvement of manual skills, wise use of the family income, care of the health, preparation of foods, improvement of the home and, above all, education of the children, can be considered not only as goals in themselves but at the same time as instruments or means which home economic educators may use in order to change the attitudes of the woman, helping her to liberate herself and apply her hidden potentialities to the collective good.

So long as we do not broaden the horizon of the woman, showing her the social perspective of the tasks which she performs, she will continue functioning without the pride and satisfaction which are provided by a job known to be important, creative, and trancendental.

In order to help woman to find herself and to value the activities which she develops, it is necessary to know thoroughly what fundamental changes have come about in the woman's situation in general, and those which have taken place in the local or national community to which she belongs. This knowledge will permit her to interpret, in the light of such changes, the new responsibilities which the present life imposes on her, not only as a consequence of the breaking of barriers which limited her participation in numerous activities, but as a consequence also of the great changes which are taking place in those so-called transitional societies.

The home economics educator needs to be in a position effectively to orient the woman in this process of self-evaluation. Woman should be helped to adapt herself to the contemporary world and to assume with skill and confidence the new responsibilities which her present status imposes on her.

In my experience with groups of women with whom we have tried this re-evaluation, it has always seemed as if some of them emerged for the first time into a new world, a world which transmits to them an interior force which fills them with pride and which adds a new significance to their lives. I remember the first comment of one of these women; "My goodness, and I have spent more than 40 years of my life ignorant of the fact that I am worth so much."

From this appraisal, the woman can go on to a re-evaluation of her functions within the family, functions which acquire a growing importance while new investigations of psychology, sociology, and education corroborate the decisive influence which the mother has over the development of the personality of her children and the formation of their character as a consequence of her close association with them.

While the attentions of the mother are focused on the physical care and the material well-being of her children, she will be performing an important task. But if, besides, she knows the formative value of the bio-psychic and social process which operate within her family and she tries to orient her family favorably, then she will be fulfilling a transcendental mission which will result in benefit to her children and to society in general.

This is the most significant contribution which home economics can offer to the Latin American countries. This profession relies upon attractive means to get close to the family, whose well-being is its specific goal. It is in the best position to provide orientation for the performance of the greatest of human responsibilities, the education of children, which figures so superficially in the general programs of instruction.

I want to mention as an interesting fact in this respect, a publication of the Parent-Teachers Association which cited the book, Education: Intellectual, Moral and Physical written more than one hundred years ago by Herbert Spencer, the famous English philosopher. Spencer marvelled that even though the life or death of a child, his moral well-being or ruin depends on the parents' treatment, there was not a single word of instruction given to those who were to be parents. And he considered it monstrous that the destiny of a new generation was was left to the mercy of irrational custom, impulse, or imagination.

Even in our days this adequate preparation for parenthood and family life does not have the priority which it deserves. But it can be provided by home economists as "in-service training" to all members of the family, an approach which will certainly make this type of education more interesting, practical, and effective.

Re-evaluating the traditional tasks of the woman as the center of the family, one notes another phase of work which has a great social potential. This is to strengthen the family and prepare it to function as a dynamic unit of social action.

The Problem of Paternal Irresponsibility

In Latin American countries characterized by strong feelings and family ties, a paradoxical situation exists which deserves mention because it constitutes a grave social illness. I refer to paternal irresponsibility, which in some areas, as in Central America, acquires alarming proportions among the weakest social, cultural, and economic groups.

Even when the family is based juridically on matrimony, free unions are so frequent that in some countries they are recognized as legal. If it were only a problem of the absence of legal ties and the family remained together, the problem would be only one of form.

The alarming thing is the number of children born outside of marriage who are registered without knowing the identity of the father from whom, for that reason, they cannot demand the rights which the law establishes in their favor.

The mother for this reason carries the weight of family life. In a high percentage of families she is the only one who cares for an provides for the necessities of her children. This situation exists more often in lower socio-economic groups. Thus children are often born with every type of limitation especially where they are deprived of a father as a moral, social, and economic support. This situation is so general that we have developed a dangerous attitude of tolerance and indifference to it.

Instead of continuing to praise the self-denial of the single mother, it is necessary to unite all efforts to initiate a social action which will restore to the family its unity, which by defection of the father is reduced to the mother-son relationship.

The Dynamic Concept of the Family

With regard to the preparation of the family as a dynamic unit of social action there is another task which home economists can assume. Ordinarily the family is considered as the passive object of the attention and interest of those who in one way or another collaborate for its well-being. The family needs to be conceived in its dynamic sense, as the bio-psychic cell of society, as a vital unit whose numerous and complex functions influence directly and indirectly the community. It is enough to cite its reproductive function from which is derived, at the same time, the most important function of all -- caring for, feeding, and educating the children. Socially speaking, this means the formation and education of communities. But the family is also a cooperative unit, the spiritual and affectional center where each one of the members who form the unit finds corresponding vital interests, the security of reciprocal help and solidarity and, in short, the natural route for linking and sustaining generations.

The dynamic conception of the family brings about a change in attitude in those who work with it. Upon considering it as an active unit, perfectable through education, they will look for possibilities of orienting the family, especially in two dynamic aspects -- first, as a self-oriented unit influencing its members and performing for their benefit, and second, as a social unit influencing decisively the life and conduct of the group.

To study the other fields in which a family action can be developed and the means by which that action can be aided is a task which is worth the effort of undertaking. It is a task in which the home economists can lend valuable assistance.

In passing I shall point out that among those fields of family action is civic-democratic education. We believe that the family can be oriented and prepared to function as a school of democratic living and as a vital laboratory for the exercise of the social responsibility of its members.

The Challenge for Home Economics

All that has been said about the assistance which home economics can offer to the Latin American countries suggest an analysis programs of study, of the preparation given to students and how they perform as professionals. This test would also throw light on the erroneous interpretation which one has of this profession, which, even worse, is identified with some of the domestic skills which it teaches.

A standard which could help this evaluation of education for the home is its degree of "humanism." To what degree do the preparation and exercise of this profession give the human beings which form the family a sense of the prime importance that they have? Which materials and to what depth do they include knowledge which will enable the home economics educator to work with the family in the human dimension to which I refer? Do the home economics educators consider themselves agents of change capable of promoting the social evolution which the times demand? Are the programs of study and work of the home economics educators revised periodically in an effort to determine if they are adequate in their content and application for the changing situation in which people must operate?

This "humanization" to which I refer seems to be reflected in the changes in the name by which this profession is known in Latin America. It has evolved from the restricted concept of "domestic economy," which is associated with manual skills and domestic jobs, to that of "education for the home," which introduces the idea of human development within the family, and finally to "family education" in some countries, a term which puts the emphasis on the development of the members who constitute the family.

The evolution of the terminology represents an evolution in the image the objectives of this profession. But the problem is something more than the name; it is in the very conception of its objectives in the adequate preparation of its professionals, and in the capacity, extent, and imagination with which home economists give fulfillment to those objectives.

Another aspect which would be useful to analyze for those who have the job of formation of home economists is the definite disinterest in Latin America in this profession in spite of the need there is for it. Because home economics is relatively new as a profession, one of the questions which ought to be considered is the strategy of its development.

Are the schools of home economics producing leaders who can at the same time share in this development? Or, on the contrary, has it been considered more useful to produce professionals who must work directly or individually with the families? Or are the schools preparing professionals of different levels, simultaneously in order that all of the needs of the profession will be covered?

It is evident that in the Latin American countries we need all types of home economists -- those who will work in rural areas, those who will serve in primary and secondary schools, those who will have charge of direct functions of planning and of the formation of the professionals in that discipline. Because home economics in its humanistic sense is the art and the science aimed at securing the well-being of the family and its preparation for social responsibility, it ought not to be reserved for the weakest economic groups. It ought to be extended to all the social groups which have need of its orientation.

We have indicated that in the Latin American countries, family education, in spite of the immense need we long have had for it, is only beginning. Thus the obvious conclusion is that this education ought to be placed within reach of all. But to achieve this stage requires planning and the establishment of priorities. Thus one of the first steps will be to determine the standards which will be used for the selection of the groups who ought to be covered and for the fixing of goals which must be reached successively.

Since international collaboration can have a determining influence, it could be useful to formulate the following questions:

Whay type of professional is needed for the development of international cooperation in this field? Don't we need professionals of a high level who can collaborate in the establishment of development of new schools of home economics, in the planning of new projects, in the direction and supervision of those who already are on their way?

Will teaching personnel have charge of the professional guidance and instruction of the different levels of home economists?

Do the concept and objectives of home economics in the United States correspond to the necessities of the underdeveloped countries?

In the Latin American countries it is of vital importance that home economics programs undertaken under international collaboration be pushed with a missionary spirit in order that, for its part, the family can be converted into a vigorous unit serving as a dynamic agent of general progress and social improvement.

THE STATUS AND ROLE OF WOMEN IN GHANA

by Angela Christian*

One of the first questions that spring to mind when examining the status of women in any given country is whether the women of that particular country have the right to vote. We may conveniently begin with that question in the case of Ghana.

Voting Rights

Have the women of Ghana the right to vote? If so, how long have they enjoyed this right?

In the former non-self-governing territory of the Gold Coast, equal universal sufferage was granted to men and women in 1950. In the former United Kingdom Trust Territory of Togoland, which became united with the Gold Coast prior to its independence in 1957, universal sufferage was granted to men and women in 1955.

The elections ordinance adopted by the Legislative Assembly on September 15, 1950, granted the men and women of the Gold Coast universal sufferage. It provided that "Every person, whether male or female, shall be entitled to be registered as an elector for a municipal electoral district and, when registered, to vote at the election of a member of the Legislative Assembly for such electoral district," if such male or female has attained the age of 21 years, and "for a period of at least six months immediately before the date of his application to have his name entered on the register has owned any assessed premises or has rented a living room in any assessed premises or has occupied any part of any assessed premises within the electoral district."

In the case of rural electoral sub-districts, the ordinance granted the right to vote to every male or female who had resided within the rural electoral sub-district for at least six months immediately before applying to be entered on the register, and who had paid the local rate or levy for the current or preceding year.

This right of men and women to vote in the municipal electoral district or rural electoral sub-district, as the case may be, was subject to the usual electors' qualifications.

The right of women to vote was confirmed by the Ghana Constitution when the Gold Coast became independent under the name of Ghana in 1957.

Article 1 of the Ghana Constitution states: The powers of the State derive from the people, by whom certain of those powers are now conferred on the institutions established by this Constitution and who shall have the right to exercise the remainder of those powers, and to choose their representatives in the Parliament now established, in accordance with the remaining principles:

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> That without distinction of sex, race, religion, or political belief, every person who, being by law a citizen of Ghana, has attained the age of 21 years and is not disqualified by law on grounds of absence, infirmity of mind or criminality, shall be entitled to one vote, to be cast in freedom and secrecy.

The right to vote alone would not be enough. We have to ask therefore if the women of Ghana enjoy other rights, and if they do, what those rights are.

Other Rights of Women

Forming the laws of Ghana are enactments in force immediately before the coming into operation of the Ghana (Constitution) Order in Council (1957), the common law, and customary law.

Under one or other of these laws, the women of Ghana enjoy rights and privileges with regard to marriage, custody of children, inheritance, ownership of property, education, the professions, trading, and general participation in the life and activities of the community.

In many instances, statutory law, English common law, and Ghana customary law apply equally. Thus under the Marriage Ordinance of 1884 and its subsequent amendments, a Ghanaian woman may marry in a church or registry office in the same manner and with the same force of law as in western countries, or she may marry under Ghanaian customary law. In like manner, a married woman may obtain a separation or divorce. Where a divorce takes place, she is awarded custody of children who are minors, unless cause can be shown that she is incapable of looking after the children. Under marriage and a divorce by customary law, this question does not arise as a rule, since the woman returns to her original home where relatives help in bringing up her children.

But under the Maintenance of Children Act of June 1965, "where a father neglects to provide reasonable maintenance for his infant child ---- the mother of the child may apply to the minister of social welfare ---or such other person as may be directed by the minister in that behalf to persuade the father to make reasonable provision for the maintenance of the child or make such other award as the minister may consider appropriate in the circumstances in accordance with the provisions of this act."

However, a father in respect of whom such an application has been made, "may also apply to the minister to request the mother to give him custody of the child."

Where an application has been made either for the provision of maintenance by the father, or the giving of custody of the child to the father, the minister, may under the act, "appoint a committee consisting of such fit and proper persons as he may consider appropriate to inquire into the matter in relation to which the application has been made and to make recommendations."

Upon receiving the recommendations, the minister may, under the act, rule that the father make a reasonable allowance having regard to the means of the father and mother, or request that the father be given custody of the child.

The paramount consideration in making a ruling, is the welfare of the child.

If after a ruling, a father neglects to provide reasonable maintenance for his child, the mother of the child, may apply to the court for a maintenance order.

To obviate the woman alone being penalized, the Maintence of Children Act, 1965, provides that "A woman who is with child, or has been delivered of a child, may apply to the court for a summons to be served on the man alleged by her to be the father of the child."

"Where a man has been adjudged the putative father -- the court may, if it thinks fit in the circumstances of the case," make an affiliation order against him for the maintenance and education of the child, "the expenses incidental to the birth of the child, and if the child has died before the making of the order, the child's funeral expenses."

When the husband of a woman who is subject to customary law but is married under the marriage ordinance dies intestate, his self-acquired property is so divided according to the provisions of marriage ordinance, that his widow receives two-thirds of it for herself and her issue by him, while one-third of the property goes to his family. Where there is no issue of the marriage, his widow receives one-third and his family two-thirds of his property.

Inheritance Customs and Laws

It may be of interest to consider patrilineal and matrilineal inheritance at this point.

Whether inheritance is patrilineal or matrilineal depends on the customary law of the particular ethnic group. Succession and inheritance among the Gas, Adanbes, Krobos, and Ewes, as well as among the Moslem inhabitants of the Northern and Upper Regions of Ghana, is patrilineal.

Among the Akans, who make up 44 per cent of the 7 1/2 million population of Ghana, succession and inheritance is matrilineal. The whole family -- immediate and extended -- is, as it were, a corporate body consisting of males and females, some of whom are entitled to a portion of property upon partition, and others dependants who are entitled to reside in the family house for life. These are sons and daughters whose residence in the family house is subject to good behavior.

The matrilineal system bears testimony to the traditional importance of women in Ghana. The actual line of matrilineal succession and inheritance is too complicated to go into here, but it would be worthwhile to consult J.M. Sarbah's work on Fanti customary law and Dr. J.B. Danquah's book on Akan laws and customs on the subject. Whatever percentage of her husband's self-acquired property she may inherit or have the use of during her husband's life time, there is no question as to the ownership of property acquired by her own industry. In the words of the Married Women's Property Ordinance (1890):

> The wages and earnings of any married woman acquired or gained by her in any employment, occupation or trade, in which she is engaged or which she carries on separately from her husband, and all investments of such wages, earnings or property, shall be deemed and taken to be property held and settled to her separate use, independent of any husband to whom she may be married, and her receipts alone shall be a good discharge for such wages, earnings, money, and property.

However, most married women in Ghana are generous with their earnings to the extent of supplementing allowances made them by their husbands whether for housekeeping, the education, or other needs of their children.

The guarantees of the ordinance will be appreciated by those who are familiar with the Ghanaian woman trader. These traders deal mostly in foodstuffs bought direct from farmers and textiles usually taken on credit from the merchant firms, but almost any commodity can be found on their stalls in the markets where they hold a monopoly. Thousands of women traders are registered with the Accra Municipal Council, and regulate their affairs through the Market Women's Association. The turnover of some of these women is considerable, and many have sizable bank accounts.

Although the majority of the market women are illiterate, they are advanced enough in their thinking to support the various social welfare and community development schemes introduced by the government, and to see to it that their children take full advantage of the country's education facilities. They take and active part in politics, and avail themselves of their voting rights. Many of them now attend literacy classes.

The traditional importance of the Akan women of Ghana dates back to the earliest history of the country.

From the beginning of the founding of the clan or state, the Akan Queenmother was regarded as the embodiment of the Mother-goddess, who was believed to be the genetrix of the clan. As the representative of this genertrix, the the Queenmother was the spiritual guardian, legal arbitrator, ruler, caretaker of the material needs of her people, and even leader of the army in given circumstances. The story of Yaa Asantewaa of Ejisu, the last Queenmother who led an army against the British in Ashanti in 1900, is well known. In all her tasks, the Queenmother was assisted by women elders, although in most matters the final decision was the Queenmother's.

With such a historical background, it is not difficult to understand why the women of Ghana command the respect they do and enjoy equal rights with men.

Discharging of Responsibilities

Rights, however, carry certain responsibilities. How, we may ask, are the women of Ghana discharging their responsibilities?

They realize that in these modern times of rapid development in Ghana, a solid formal education is a prerequisite to advancement in all fields of endavor and service.

Time was when a bigger proportion of boys was sent to school, girls being kept at home to help, and being married off early. Since the introduction of free compulsory education in 1961, and encouragement towards secondary and university education aided by scholarships, this is no longer the case. Girls as well as boys are sent to school, and the important point is that the girls want to go to school. Up to the secondary level, boys and girls attend school in comparable numbers, and although there are more male young adults at the university level, more and more women are going on to universities and are being encouraged to do so. They are being encouraged to take up professions in which there were no women up to a few years ago.

For some years now, Ghanaian women have served their communities as teachers, nurses, doctors, and lawyers. Many more are entering the professions of medicine and law; others are venturing into new fields.

In February of 1965 a woman research officer of the Entomological and Parasitological Research Unit of the Ghana Academy of Sciences was appointed director of the new Institute of Aquatic Biology. The institute is a part of the Academy of Sciences, and is responsible for research into the biology of streams, rivers, ponds, lagoons and intermittent as well as permanent bodies of water. The director of the institute, who studied at the Universities of Liverpool and Birmingham in England and at the University of Michigan, is the first Ghanaian woman to obtain a doctorate (in entomology). In February 1965 a woman was appointed district commissioner for Half Assini in the Western Region of Ghana, thus bringing the number of women district commissioners to two.

Effect was given to the Representation of the People (Women Members) Act (1960) which repealed the Act of 1959, when 10 nominated women were voted into the National Assembly.

The Act provides that:

> In addition to the seats otherwise provided by law, there shall be 10 seats in the National Assembly for women members of Parliament under this act.
>
> Three of the said seats shall be allocated to the Northern Region, two each to the Eastern and Western Regions, and one each to the remaining Regions.
>
> ....any two or more members of Parliament representing electoral districts in a Region may nominate a person, being a woman who is qualified for election in accordance with Section 4 of the National Assembly Act, 1959.

Soon after they entered Parliament, two of the women were appointed deputy minister of education and deputy minister of social welfare and community development, respectively. The former deputy minister of education has been, since January of 1965, minister of social welfare. Since the elections of June 1965 the number of women in the Ghana National Assembly of 198 members has risen to 19.

A number of the women members of Parliament have represented their country at conferences in many parts of the world, and at the United Nations. Seven of the original 10 members are on the Boards of State Enterprises, six in the capacity of chairman.

The sense of community solidarity as well as of family closeness is strong in the traditional life of Ghana. This has been translated into modern terms, and many of the country's women belong to voluntary organizations such as the Girl Guides, Young Women's Christian Association, and the Red Cross.

There is also an over all organization of women which concerns itself with the fostering of unity and understanding among the women of the whole of Ghana, namely the National Council of Ghana Women. The council was inaugurated in September, 1960 when the Federation of Ghana Women and the Ghana Women's League merged.

The council co-ordinates the efforts of the women of Ghana, and provides and avenue through which joint consultation can be held and action on social, economic, educational, cultural and political matters affecting women can be taken on a national level.

The inauguration membership of the council was 6,656. Within a year membership rose to 20,000, a sure indication that the women of Ghana realized their responsibility and were taking it seriously.

Another way in which the women of Ghana are demonstrating their sense of responsibility and readiness to progress with the rest of the country is in their response to the Mass Education and Community Development Program.

If we accept that a person with a sound mind cannot get very far without a sound body, then we accept the importance of a competent woman in the home. Cleanliness and hygiene, good living conditions, and good food for building sound bodies depend to a great extent on the woman in the home Unless a woman is knowledgeable and able to provide these in the home, a family suffers mentally as well as physically.

Realizing this, the Department of Social Welfare and Community Development launched a program in 1954 especially for women, and devised a syllabus which included health and sanitation, food and nutrition, child care, better homes, needlework and handicrafts to be taught by trained women, particularly in the rural areas. The women responded, and today, there are more than 600 women's groups all over the country attending classes where they learn through talks, demonstrations, discussions, films, and practical work how to improve their homes and how to use their local resources to achieve better living conditions. They are encouraged to take up vegetable gardening and poultry keeping to supplement their families' diet, and how to prepare or cook available foodstuffs in order to get the maximum benefit from them. They are also encouraged to attend literacy classes so that they may thereafter continue to learn through the written word.

Annual exhibitions of the needlework, handicrafts, and kitchen garden produce of the women attending these classes are organized to add interest to their educational activities, and to encourage other women in their communities to participate.

In a number of rural areas, women have undertaken construction projects had have successfully helped to build roads and community centers where their mass education activities take place, and where they can leave their children for the day while they are working on their farms or in the markets.

There is no doubt that the Social Welfare and Community Development program is of real value. It has been successful, and women have played a great part in its success, resulting in a better and healthier life for many families.

Taking the areas surveyed into account, it must be agreed that the women of Ghana have contributed and continue to contribute to the development and progress of their country through the responsible discharge of their duties, in recognition of the full and equal status they enjoy with the men of the land.

CROSS CULTURAL UNDERSTANDING

by Patsy Graves*

Out of an agonizing search for words and phrases that would properly introduce this subject, I came across a few paragraphs that said so perfectly what I sought in vain to express that I have taken the liberty to quote the relevant material in full. The material is from "The United States and Africa," a report of the proceedings of the 13th American Assembly, which convened in May 1958 to discuss political, social, economic, and cultural relationships with the countries of Africa.

The American Assembly is a program of conferences which brings together business, labor, farm groups, the professions, political parties, government, and the academic community. These meetings develop recommendations on issues of national concern. It is a non-partisan public service designed to throw light on problems confronting citizens of the United States. It was established in 1950 by former President Eisenhower, who was then president of Columbia University.

Understanding Cultures

Under the topic, "Culture and Changing Values in Africa," Dr. Walter Goldschmidt, anthropologist and sociologist at the University of California, wrote the following, and I wish to use it as a prelude to a discussion of cross cultural understanding.

> If we are to understand the future of a people, we must appreciate its past; if we are to see the emergent patterns of life, we must know the cultural forces shaping that existence. For the way of life of a people in any time and place is built out of past customs adapted to present circumstances and needs. These ways of life are what the anthropologist calls "culture."
>
> Before we can look at the culture of Africa, we must pause to consider what the term means -- for it is central... to any constructive attitude toward the continent of Africa.
>
> As anthropologists use the term, all peoples have culture, for culture is their customary way of doing things. It includes all aspects of life: the way they make things, the manner in which they wrest a livelihood from the soil, the way they organize their society, the way they look at the world about them, even the attitudes and sentiments and feelings they share. The important points about culture are that these things are shared by the group, that they are learned and are not biologically inherited modes of behavior, and that they are passed down from one generation to the next.

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Furthermore, we have come to realize that there is kind of internal consistency to culture, that each part affects every other, and that all are tied into a whole which, under normal circumstances, makes and integrated and patterned way of life. Most important of all, each person is shaped by the culture in which he is raised, so that what he is, what he thinks and feels, what he does, are products of his culture. This is no mysterious process -- though it is a subtle one -- but takes place through gradual conditioning to the circumstances around him. Moreover, not only is the individual shaped by his culture, but he feels that his own culture is the right, the inevitable way of doing things. How else can he feel since as infant and as child his elders and betters have taught him these cultural assumptions? Culture, then, is not merely a set of customs; it is a way of life. And each people has his own way of life.

Although Dr. Goldschmidt was talking specifically about African culture, he said that his definition referred to the "way of life of a people in any time and place." He could very well have been talking about the expatriate who goes to Africa as an advisor or teacher or consultant or specialist. (Another of the unresolved problems in international relations is the proper name for the foreign expert.) The African who requests assistance and the expatriate who goes to give the assistance are each products of his culture. How do we lessen the impact, how do we bridge the gaps between these cultures in order that the two worlds can find a meeting point for mutually rewarding interchange? This, it seems to me, is the core of the problem in cross cultural understanding.

The burden, of course, is upon the expatriate. The first step toward cross cultural understanding is to have more than a perfunctory knowledge of the culture with which you hope to understand and work. There is no substitute for this kind of home work. It is as important as having a valid visa, or a smallpox shot, or a malarial suppressive. It is as important as all the other impediments with which we usually burden ourselves, often needlessly, as we pack our intellectual and material belongings for a tour of duty in a foreign land.

The Yoruba Culture

As one example of the depth and range of an African culture let us look at a few facts about the Yorubas, the African tribe largely making up the 12 million people living in the Western Region of Nigeria. What is known of ancient Yoruba life comes to us in much the same way as history is acquired about the dim and distant past of any people -- through legends and stories of early rulers who became gods, through stories of rulers who did not become gods, accounts written by travellers, mostly Europeans, who visited Yorubaland, and through recent written records.

The written accounts of early Yoruba history are bewildering mixtures of the rise and fall of kingdoms, of wars and battles and seiges. The constant taking and losing of important towns seems to have been the central preoccupation of the rival forces. Surviving are several important cities in the Western Region that we know today and the descendants of the more important ruling houses who still engage in verbal battles over the rights of succession. At first glance, these systems may seem completely out of tune with modern times. But closer examination reveals that they are great unifying and controlling forces. Whether you personally approve the system of chiefs, headmen, rulers or obas as they are called, you must realize that this is one of the more obvious manifestations of ancient culture that is meaningful to the people. Above all, the system is the avenue through which people are reached and as such is important to the dissemination of knowledge.

As a practitioner in the field of home economics, I find most useful for my purposes Dr. Goldschmidt's definition of culture as the customary way of doing things. It is my life's work to train people who can help others to change or modify customary ways of doing things as a means of achieving a higher standard of living. If you prefer a definition of culture that includes contributions to the arts, there are tangible evidences in this regard in the discovery in this century of pieces of sculpture at an important Yoruba center, the city of Ife, site of the new regional university being assisted by the University of Wisconsin.

Some of these ancient art pieces are of bronze and some are of terracotta. The workmanship is very fine and the men who did them were evidently very talented. The original idea was that these pieces were very old indeed, say 3,000 years. The present theory is that they were made after 1000 A.D., probably between 1400 or 1500 or thereabouts.

There are legendary stories of good and bad Yoruba kings that are probably as true and as false as any legend of this type. My favorite king is Sango, who is said to have started the custom of placing tribal marks on faces as a trick to recapture an important town. He persuaded a rival king and his chiefs that scarifying the face would increase their good looks. While they were sore from the wounds he attacked and captured the town.

The custom of tribal markings has come down through the ages and even today field workers employed by our home economics section reports to us whether or not new babies are given tribal markings. It is significant that in training field workers we never discussed the subject of tribal markings. What we did talk about was proper feeding of the expectant mother, of the necessity of regular attendance at clinics, of boiling water, and of taking other health precautions. In developing a general awareness of the importance of sanitation measures, our workers went to battle on the subject of tribal markings on their own accord. This has strengthened my belief in the necessity of teaching people broad principles and letting them make their own applications.

The same legendary King Sango who became a god fought many victorious battles, but his own end came by his too successful attemps to attract lightning. I do not know what influence this had on the experiments of one Mr. Benjamin Franklin, but King Sango's house was struck by lightning as he was conducting experiments from the top of a hill. His wives, children, and property were destroyed, and in his grief he abdicated the throne, wandered about in the desert, and finally hanged himself on a shea butter tree. He became the legendary god of thunder and lightning and as such is still worshipped in remote parts of Nigeria as well as Brazil.

There is a considerable body of literature on Yoruba history for anyone who takes the trouble to seek it out. A small volume by C.R. Niven, A Short History of the Yoruba Peoples, will give a clear picture of the legendary and historical kings from earliest times to the present. And of what value is all this to the expatriate working in Yorubaland?

The heart and center of Yorubaland is Ibadan, largest city in Africa south of the Sahara and site of the great federal university of the same name. Ibadan began its existence as an army camp and is an historical center of paramount importance. The greatest amount will be received from Ibadan and from Yorubaland if the traveller takes the greatest amount with him to Ibadan and to Yorubaland in terms of knowlege, awareness, and perception. This, then, is the first hurdle to cross cultural understanding, a realization that each culture has an ancient past of which it is proud and deep rooted customs by which it lives and has its being. A realization that even though Africa may be a newcomer on the world political scene, it is by no means a recent arrival on earth.

If we can return to Professor Goldschmidt's reminder that culture includes all aspects of life and that these things are shared by the group, are learned, and are passed down from one generation to the next, we come face to face with the accumulated experience of the ages as we approach any situation in African life. The oral tradition is still the most meaningful for the masses of people. The praise singer and the story teller are still part of the African scene. The legends and myths and feelings and ways of doing things as handed down from father to son and from mother to daughter are still deeply rooted in the fabric of life. They must be approached with reserve and caution and with proper respect if cross cultural understanding is to be achieved.

And all of this is of special importance to the home economist. The teaching and practice of home economics, whose main concern is with the family unit, is in both a privileged and a somewhat delicate situation. If there are more opportunities to achieve cultural understanding in certain areas of home economics there are also more pitfalls to be avoided. Yoruba society, for example, is a very formal and mannered society. Probably going back to the fact that ancient kingdoms were made up of stratified layers of society in which relationships were delicately balanced, there is not even today a free and easy, informal hail-fellow-well-met give and take among Yorubas peoples. This is not true among themselves and is certainly not true with outsiders.

In meeting a group of Yoruba women, protocol demands that the eldest woman be greeted first and the next eldest next, and so on down the line. Among a similar group of American women, all of whom who are desperately holding on to youth, no one would wish to be singled out as the eldest or the next eldest. Endless examples of this kind could be cited, but I would like to close out on this matter of approaches to cross cultural understanding by saying that from the person of genuine good will who is without a scintilla of condenscension and who is free from the taint of patronizing others and who is appreciative of the depth and breadth of a tribe's culture, small breeches of etiquette and protocol will be quickly forgiven or overlooked. Conversely, the person who is doing the world, himself, his government, and Africa a deep personal favor by being in Africa at all--such a person can do nothing right and has failed before he has begun. Before knowing African history or culture, it will be well to know thyself.

Insights from Nigerian Home Economics Conference

I want to share with you now a recent experience in Nigeria that is relevant to the concerns of this conference. In May, 75 or so persons gathered in Northern Nigeria for a UNICEF-assisted national conference on home economics. The main objectives of the conference were to explore and examine the place of home economics in the national life of Nigeria and to make recommendations for its future development. The findings of that conference will have far reaching effects on the development of home economics in higher education within Nigeria and are perhaps relevant for other countries as well.

The conference was made up of representatives from education, extension service, nutrition, public health, nursing, social welfare, community development, economic planning, agriculture, and other allied fields. Observers were invited from private organizations, both national and international.

The conference was under preparation for nearly a year, and planning committees were organized in each of the four regions of Nigeria and the federal territory. Happily, there was a consensus that these regional committees should remain intact and that a permanent national committee should remain in force. These are to be known as regional and national committees on family life, certainly a very meaningful term in the African context.

There were several closely related, strongly recurring themes in that conference as revealed by the talks presented and the discussions following.

First, it was emphasized that some form of preparation for home and family life should permeate the entire educational system. It was noted that increased emphasis should be placed on the primary grades, because primary education represents the total educational experience for the largest number of Nigerian boys and girls. Primary education is free. Education thereafter becomes very expensive and is enjoyed by only the favored few.

Second, it was emphasized that this can only be achieved by the immediate development of a corps of trained teachers in home economics. Thus it was recognized that each region should provide for this preparation in at least one teacher training institution. The question of how the home economics graduate will be used when she returns home is, of course, paramount. Many things happen, but in Nigeria at least, it can be safely predicted that the need for teachers to train teachers will substantially increase in the immediate future.

Also stressed was the development of home economics teaching taking into account the rich natural resources of Nigeria and their use -- and the necessity of finding ways to use these resources for the betterment of living. The phrase, "We starve in the midst of plenty," is often heard. In the development of higher education in home economics, the necessity for basic research should be one of the first consideration. This is not to say that teaching programs must wait for research. Some work has been done in the past, and considerable work is being done now, particularly in the area of nutrition. While taking advantage of what is available, it is necessary to plan for investigation in other areas.

There was repeated reference to the desirability of teaching a brand of home economics in Nigeria recognizing the values of Nigerians, widely varying as these values may be. There is no area more deeply felt or more potentially explosive than the subject of family composition--or in other words the question of polygamy versus monogamy. Needless to say, there are families of all types and I have found that some teachers of home economics in Nigeria are becoming concerned as to the way of approaching problems presented by the students. There are those who feel it is impossible rationally to approach the subject of family relationships in their teaching. They need and want help in this area. And I will state flatly that any expatriate home economist who goes in with rigid, intolerant ideas on the subject is going to find herself in a cross cultural impasse of no mean proportions. Those in the business of preparing African women to cope with the basic problems of family life in a developing society must search very hard for perspective on such knotty problems as family composition. We must help the future teacher of home economics to arrive at a working philosophy about these matters that will enable her to walk her own cross cultural tightrope between the old and the new. This is an awesome responsibility and, in my opinion, far more important than the development of skills in the various areas of home economics.

I have referred to the 75 or so conferees at the national conferences on home economics in Nigeria without previously mentioning that at least half were men. It is of greatest importance that men should play decisive roles in the development of home economics education. Men and women do not live in tight compartments in Nigeria. In our work in villages we cannot get rid of men. Even lessons on baby care attract men's rapt attention. Women in Nigeria occupy important posts in the government and in the various professions, but as in America it is still a man's world, and the help and sympathy and concern of men will advance the cause of home economics at a much faster rate.

Our Nigerian conference brought high ranking men from education, government and allied fields who, it is believed, left the meeting on the side of home economics and who will, it is hoped exert influence in the proper places in giving home economics education a boost toward higher status.

One final thought coming out of the Nigerian conference seems particularly relevant to the purposes of this meeting. There was an overwhelming consensus that home economics in Nigeria has a large contribution to make in enriching and improving the lives of people on all social and economic levels. To those unacquainted with Africa, the tendency is to think only in terms of poverty and disadvantage, of disease and disability, and of all the ills besetting mankind. And of these negative aspects, there are more than enough. But there is another, brighter side of the coin.

There are rich and poor Nigerians. There are those who live in mud huts and those who live in marble palaces. There is also an emerging middle class that is neither rich nor poor. But, most importantly, Nigerian society is on the move in all aspects of development. The establishment of universities and a general increase in educational opportunities on all levels will mean a growing number of educated men and women. Strides toward industrialization and the modernization of agriculture will in time raise the economic level of the masses.

The Educated Woman's Role

In an open, fluid, and rapidly developing society, the role of the educated woman is crucial. It is through her influence that improved economic status is translated into higher standards of living. She sets the tone of society and sees that human and social values are not forgotten in the feverish pace of economic and political advancement. The traditional concerns of home economics education have been with values and standards in personal, family and community living. Our task is to assist the African woman to acquire the type of education that will help her to preserve the best of her own culture while infusing and adapting improvement and change.

Those of us working in the field are often asked, "What kind of education will fit the needs of that country?" The basic assumption seems wrong to me. Of course a country will have its own particular needs, but in a rapidly developing society needs and directions and thrusts are ever changing. What will truly fit the needs of an African country (or perhaps of any country) is a hard core of broadly educated men and women whose minds have been quickened, awakened and stretched -- who have been motivated to recognize problems and to search for answers.

No education extant in the world can precisely prepare anyone for a bush village in Africa or a poverty pocket in Appalachia, but it can prepare people who want to see the pockets eliminated and the bush brought to light. That is the main task, as I see it, and one worthy of your best efforts and mine.

TRADITIONAL AGRICULTURE AS PART OF THE CULTURAL BACKGROUND

by Vernon C. Johnson*

I am pleased to discuss the relevance of traditional agriculture as part of the cultural background in less developed countries. My foreign experience over the past five years has been in Africa, mainly Nigeria, but I have traveled and recorded observations in other West African countries and to a more limited extent in East Africa. For this discussion my remarks are restricted to West Africa,with a focus on Nigeria.

Nature of Problem

In the broadest sense, the problem of traditional agriculture is seen in the fact that the less developed countries are finding it more and more difficult to feed themselves. Two immediate facts stand out. First, the gap between current production and food needs in developing countries is widening. The deficit is now approaching 25 million metric tons of food per year. Second, food production per unit of land and labor in certain developing countries is declining relative to population growth.

The problem of low unit production has two attendant considerations. For less developed countries, and especially for Africa, there is a growing concern for nutritional deficiencies. These nutritional deficiencies may emerge from an absolute food shortage, from a shortage of the proper foods (especially protein), from poor selection and preparation of available foods, or from inadequate incomes with which to buy nutritious foods. Moreover, if we assume that economic development in the form of increased per capita real income will, in fact, come about, there will certainly be changes in tastes shifting to inferior status many of the starchy staple foods. Significant adjustments in production would then be required.

All of these aspects of the food problem are, I suppose, vital considerations for home economists.

Some Features of Traditional Agriculture in West Africa

The popular image of Africa is based more nearly on exaggerated stories than on detailed observations and intensive research. This inadequate knowledge of Africa has caused me to review relevant characteristics of African agriculture in considerable detail as a basis for mutual understanding.

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Before 1959 only Ethiopia, Liberia, and South Africa were completely independent. This meant that the great mass of Africa was under colonial, protectorate, or trust status. A great deal of general economic development occurred during this time, particularly in the form of infrastructure[1] and the exploitation of raw materials. Since countries of Europe controlled vast areas of the world in addition to Africa, it was customary and logical to produce raw agricultural commodities on the basis of comparative advantage. If for example, climatic and other conditions were suitable for growing cocoa in Nigeria and Ghana, there was little need to undertake the research costs and the risks of trying to grow it elsewhere. The same reasoning was true for tea in India, sugarcane in Central America, palm oil and peanuts in West Africa, and the like.

The outcome of past history shows itself in the agriculture of West Africa today. In each country in West Africa there is a concentration on one or two export crops as a principal source of cash and foreign exchange earnings. In countries like Nigeria, significant research advances and certain technical changes were associated with the production of these cash export crops. The export sector was relatively progressive.

But the traditional food-producing sectors did not change during the colonial era. African economies have been supplemented, but modified very little little by the addition of cash export crops. The principal export crops are cocoa, rubber latex, coffee, timber, peanuts, and cotton. Palm kernels and palm oil are also important items of export, the fruit being collected mainly from wild trees. In addition to exports there are numerous kinds of trees, bushes, and annual crops whose products are utilized for direct local consumption and trade. These include bananas, plantains, papaya, mangoes, avocados, and kola nuts.

When tropical trees and bushes have been removed sufficiently in the forest zones to permit sunlight to filter in and in savanna areas where open land is available,patches of land in garden sizes are prepared for the planting of corn, pepper, root-crops (mainly yams, cassava and cocoa-yams) other mixed vegetables, and guinea corn. The numbers of such patches of food crops are likely to multiply near village compounds.

In association with traditional cropping, farm animals consist mainly of native goats, sheep and chickens in the forest zones, the tsetse fly being a killer of other domesticated livestock. Most of the commercial cattle are therefore confined mainly to savanna areas where the tsetse fly threat diminishes. The cattle are usually owned by nomadic people. A new arrival from western countries and temperate zone agriculture would no doubt be astounded by the apparent absence of conventional farms. Instead of the rotation of crops he would find the rotation of fields in a pattern of shifting cultivation. The seemingly disorganized interspersement of trees, bushes, and garden-type farms surrounding villages is typical of traditional agriculture in the area.

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[1] Infrastructure: The elements of an economic system that provide essential supporting facilities for the processes of production, but do not enter directly into those processes, as for example, the credit system, the transportation system, the education system, etc.

These simple facts are of major significance for agricultural development and policy in West Africa. In the traditional agriculture as found, there is little draft animal power for land preparation. It is doubtful that one would find more than a dozen privately owned tractors. Those that exist are confined mainly to government research stations, foreign plantations, and government-supported farm settlements or similarily organized farms. The indigenous farmer prepares his land for cropping by machet and hoe and tills it the same way.

In like manner, the tenure of land remains mostly customary. There are government forest reserves and experimental areas, and millions of farmers occupying the great mass of farm land. There is a descending order of ownership of land: the extended family has highest claim to the land; the immediate larger community of which the extended family is a part has the next highest claim. This larger community may be a village, or a group of villages representing a clan, or even a small tribe. But use rights in land are customarily allocated to extended families and subsequently to nuclear families within the extended family. Chiefs who represent the community possess land as do other families of the community, and they hold, in effect, loose trust rights over all village or community land. But the historic allocation of land for use was to families. These rights, though without strict legal sanction, are inheritable. Thus land tenure rights, which incidently represent prime rights in agricultural communities, center on the family but always within a rather fixed social context. The extended family in a village never becomes completely independent of its larger community, nor is there clear independence of younger generations (i.e., nuclear families) with extended farm families.

We may summarize this section by saying that in the traditional cultures of West Africa, the village, and more particularly the extended family compound, have become the units of survival. Economic functions were organized around traditional agriculture. These practices developed into institutions. But the institutions insure the perpetuation of subsistence rather than rapid economic development. The fact that commercial export crops are produced and sold does not alter this conclusion. In the case of arable export crops, we find that they have been grafted onto traditional farming practices, with little change in farm organization and layout, tillage practices, management and tools. It was found that adapted tree crops could be harvested in a manner similar to that used for wild trees. The habits of work and conduct were culturally oriented and for the most part remain so. For example, it is customary for men to clear and burn brush, prepare the land for planting and probably plant the new crops. Women then tend the crops until harvest. Ownership of certain crops follow sex divisions.

We could continue by relating other aspects of traditional agriculture. But it is clear that economic practices become caught up in all aspects of the broader culture, and this fact has definite implications for economic development.

Some Possible Implications

1. Since home economists are going to foreign countries as part of university contract teams and other groups, one point of interest may be how to approach traditional villages and traditional cultures when one goes into a new country. A beginning point is that the institutions designated for change must be thoroughly understood. It has been noted that the African agricultural village has always conducted its economic affairs in such a way as to assure survival for its members. But we are now asking, indeed demanding, changes in the old agricultural structure. In agricultural planning the goal now is to be economic advancement rather than the traditional one of group survival. This is nothing less than a disorganizing process of great magnitude. We should realize that shifting from traditional agriculture to modern agriculture represents a complete transformation. The main question is whether we and the citizens of underdeveloped countries fully understand the price that must be paid for the progress that is sought.

2. An attendant problem is that of trying to get a feel of life in the villages where traditional agriculture is carried on. By no means is this automatic. Mainly it is a problem of repeat visits, of gradually building up mutual confidences, of gauging what to attempt, and providing quick and deliberate follow-up for whatever is begun.

Home economists cannot function in isolation from other skills and services which may be available. The home economist should request the assistance of poultrymen, horticulturists, engineers, and others who can help to generate income in these traditional situations.

3. With regard to administrative problems, staffing problems, curricula development, and others, the colleges and schools of home economics will find difficulties equal to those in other parts of universities. But beyond these commonplace problems, I am apprehensive that the universities may not have fully grasped the difficulty of modernizing traditional agriculture. There is a tendency to go about it as if it were a problem common to those found in the states and local communities of the United States. This is far from the actual case.

ROLE OF UNIVERSITIES IN HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

by R. Freeman Butts*

Traditional Societies in Transition

In a recent article, Prof. John H. Kautsky of the political science department of Washington University in St. Louis had this to say about a worldwide phenomenon that deeply affects all of us at this conference. Let me quote two short paragraphs:

> Beginning about half a century ago in Mexico, China, Russia, and Turkey, revolutions -- violent or peaceful, sudden or gradual -- have by now swept much of the underdeveloped world. Though they have differed very widely in many respects, all of them have, more or less explicity, aimed at the removal of the traditional order and, sooner or later, at its replacement by a modern industrialized society.
>
> ...and it is generally intellectuals who assume the leadership of the movements for modernization in underdeveloped countries. These intellectuals are themselves a product of an education appropriate to -- and often acquired in -- an industrially advanced country.[1]

The gap between the more modern and the less modern countries is at last being recognized as an educational gap as well as an economic and technological gap. The gap between traditional societies and modern societies -- whether measured in economic goods, political processes, social institutions, or the availability and quality of education -- has grown out of one of the most fundamental transformations in the entire human career. For some 500 years the modernization process has been at work among the peoples of the West, but in other parts of the world the modernizing process has been at work for only a hundred years or less. In still other parts, the people have scarcely begun to change their traditional ways of life. This uneven historical development of the modern in relation to the traditional poses the most basic problems of international politics, economics, and education I can think of. The transfusion of educational assistance flowing from the more advanced nations to the less advanced nations has come to be seen as the very life blood of technical assistance.

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[1] John H. Kautsky, "Myth, Self-fulfilling Prophecy, and Symbolic Reassurance in the East-West Conflict," The Journal of Conflict Resolution, March 1965.

First, a word about what I mean by "Modern." The social relationships of a modern style of life are increasingly based upon secular and impersonal standards of achievement and performance rather than solely upon regard for the more intimate ties of kinship, friendship, and locality, or the inherited role ascribed to a particular occupation, race, or religion. Modern civilization is marked by a speed of movement,of transit, and of communication unimaginable in a traditional civilization and by a relatively easy social mobility leading from one occupation or one social class to another, a mobility never to be anticipated by the vast majority of people in a premodern society.

All in all, the fabric of the intellectual life of a modern civilization has been affected radically by the rational-logical methods of science, by the widening of men's horizons on the cosmos and on nature, by the multiplying of his perceptions of alternate ways of human life, by the application of rational methods of thought to virtually all matters of heavenly and earthly affairs, and by a psychological readiness to adapt to rapid change in the conditions of life and death. The distinctive climate of opinion of modern civilization has been shaped by the perfecting of methods for creating, organizing, acquiring, and transmitting reliable and valid knowledge, by the creation of large scale systems of universal and secular education, and by the development of widespread literacy and mass communication.[2]

Now, let me put the meaning of modernization in personal terms as faced today by a "traditional" man or woman in Africa, or Latin America, or Asia, or indeed in some parts of Europe and the United States. He lives in a rural, agrarian society where his efforts to make a living off the land are rewarded by bare subsistence and with little or nothing to spare, if he succeeds in subsisting at all. He knows little of modern machines or technology. He knows little outside of his immediate family, kinship group , or locality. His world of behavior is circumscribed by inherited standards of class or status or occupation. He knows little except through speaking and hearing his mother tongue. He does not expect things to change very much, nor does he feel that he can do much about the conditions of his life or the future of his family. He finds personal security within prescribed loyalties to family and local rulers, through inherited beliefs and outlooks handed down from his ancestors or from the local guardians of religious faith.

But the outside modern world is forcing him to change in many obvious or subtle ways. He must somehow broaden his traditional loyalties to his particular family tribe or locality and embrace a more general loyalty to his new nation, which may now include tribes or groups who have been his ancient enemies. He may find that his inherited social role or class or occupation, which carried with it a recognizable status, whether high or low, may now be changed for the better if he works harder to achieve that change -- or it may change for the worse through no fault of his own if he merely continues doing what he has always done. His mother tongue is no longer sufficient to enable him to be a fully functioning member of his new nation or of the modern world. He must learn to read and write what he had formerly known only orally; formal education is now required where only informal learning had earlier sufficed. Indeed, he often must learn the written language belonging to his ancient enemies or to his former colonial rulers. Strange sounds in words and music come over the radio, and many of these are disturbing indeed.

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[2] Joseph W. Elder defines "modernity" as corresponding to "secular education," meaning "that type of education endorsing the establishment of objectifiable evidence for proof of phenomena in opposition to the type of education that endorses tradition or faith as the basis for proof of phenomena." See W.B. Hamilton (ed.) The Transfer of Institutions, Duke University Press, Durham, N.C. 1964, p.141.

His rural way of life and subsistence way of life are confronted by strange people who come from the cities. Our "traditional" man faces the prospect of change whether he stays at home or whether he is prompted to find his own way to the city. Either alternative is deeply disturbing. His children or his wife begin to look different and to behave in new-fangled ways -- and that is still more disturbing. His whole set of beliefs about what is good and desirable begins to be challenged by new gods or new idols. His geographic isolation, his social position, and his psychological security may all be disrupted by speeding motor buses, blaring radios, gaudy magazines, strange tinned foods, styles of clothing that outrage the dictates of custom or even of morality, running water, an unfamiliar job in the city, and all the other trappings of modernization that we in our industrialized society how have more or less learned to live with. But the trauma of learning to adopt a modern style of life in a hurry and of finding a reassuring sense of personal identity amidst such disturbing change is drastic indeed. It is hard enough for those of us born and brought up in a modernizing society. It is worse confounded for those who are caught up in the maelstrom of change with scarcely time to adjust. Fortunately, many of the people who are faced with these desperate personal problems are turning to education as one of the most fundamental means of surviving the transition without recourse to violence or chaos.

Now, we in the West are faced with resurgent peoples who no longer want to be ruled by the West or to be dominated by the West, but who recognize in greater or lesser degree that they need help in transforming their traditional societies into modern societies. In other words, they want to achieve what the West has achieved but to do it under their own direction and not under the direction of outsiders. To put it bluntly, they want to be both modern and free.

Developing Human Resources in Africa

This, then, is the setting in which any viable theory of the role of universities in human resource development must be formulated. It is a setting in which fundamental transformations are taking place. It is a setting which must not be forgotten or ignored as we contemplate what the universities of the world can do to assist in the achievement of peaceful, orderly, humane, and effective measures of national and personal development. In what follows, let me concentrate upon the role of African universities in human resource development. I feel a bit more at home in using them as illustrations than I do with respect to Latin American universities, but I believe that much of what I have to say applies to the underdeveloped world in general.

I should like to present three general propositions and discuss each very briefly:

1. The diverse and often conflicting national aspirations expressed by by the new African governments for their universities must somehow be rationalized into a consistent set of educational priorities if they are to be translated into an effective program of higher education and of education for the professions.

2. The fundamental academic assumptions that underlie the university traditions already established in Africa must be reckoned with and, if need be, reexamined, in order that their validity may be tested in the light of these nationalistic aspirations and of a human resource development theory that takes professional education seriously.

3. The political, social, psychological, and cultural values that form the context of African life as it faces the prospect of change from traditional to modern forms should be the continuing subject of careful, objective, and empirical research. Such study should provide the basis upon which to formulate a congruent program of professional education which will bring together nationalist aspirations, inherited university patterns, and the findings of social science research.

Establishing Educational Priorities

Turning to my first proposition, let me remind you of the succinct and authoritative example of African aspirations for African universities as contained in the conclusions listed in the report of the Conference on the Development of Higher Education in Africa held at Tananarive in 1962:

> In addition to its traditional functions and obligations to teach and to advance knowledge through research, the role of higher education in the social, cultural, and economic development of Africa must be:
>
> 1. To maintain adherence and loyalty to world academic standards
> 2. To ensure the unification of Africa
> 3. To encourage elucidation of an appreciation for African culture and heritage and to dispel misconceptions of Africa, through research and teaching of African studies.
> 4. To develop completely the human resources for meeting manpower needs
> 5. To train the "whole man" for nation-building
> 6. To evolve over the years a truly African pattern of higher learning dedicated to Africa and its people yet promoting a bond of kinship to the larger human society.

Now one can agree with each one of these six general propositions separately, but when it comes to delineating in concrete terms just what each means for a particular university program and what it means for educational development in relation to the other propositions, I am not sure how much consistency will emerge. We all know that the goals of education are relatively easy to state in general terms, but we also know that they are sometimes hard to realize in the curriculum programs that university faculties solemnly draw up in committee or in general debate or that ministries of education hammer out in the stress of administrative obligation or the pressure of political responsibility. The Tananarive conclusions are a significant statement of African aspirations for African universities, but I submit that as they stand they do not provide very precise guidelines for drawing up a curriculum for a university or for defining a program of professional education.

In one breath universities are asked to serve the purpose of nation-building, and the next breath they are asked to ensure the unification of Africa. Are the present realities of African nationalism consistent with the ideals of African unity? Should all African universities have a common goal, or should the universities of a particular nation follow a pattern set by the government of that nation? On a continent of more than 30 independent nations at various stages of development is there any one "truly African pattern of higher learning," or may there be diverse patterns of higher education in the making just as there are diverse political and economic institutions in the making?

Should a university's programs of study for developing "the whole man" be equal in status and support to those that meet specialized man-power needs? If a university takes seriously its obligations to develop human resources through professional education, will this goal require changes in admission policies or allocation of students to various fields of study? Should more students be entering the sciences and the technologies and fewer entering the humanities and the social sciences?

What is to be done if a university faculty's conception of "world academic standards" does not exactly coincide with a governments's belief that the university should act as an instrument for the "consolidation of national unity," or thatits mission is to "define and confirm the aspirations of the society which it is established to serve?" Are intellectual habits of objective analysis and critical thought any the less to be prized for university students and faculties in an African university than elsewhere in the world?

These may be peculiarly difficult questions to answer -- or, I suppose even to discuss. Nevertheless, I believe they must be discussed. In doing so I suggest that certain distinctions need to be made. I would argue that a university does have the obligation to "serve the society" that supports it and that a government may legitimately exert claims upon a university to "serve the nation" by expanding the range of its studies to promote modernization and to prepare teachers for the urgent tasks that face the nation, but I would also argue that a government cannot legitimately require the stilling of intellectual dissent or the stifling of political dissent -- and still claim that it has a university. If it insists upon requiring political orthodoxy from a university community it may have a government teaching bureau or a staff college or even a polytechnical institute on its hands, but it no longer has a university -- whose very life blood is intellectual freedom.

On the other hand, a university cannot legitimately claim the freedom for its faculty or students to stand aloof from service to the nation or to take any political actions they please even though such actions may threaten the security of the government or jeopardize the welfare of the nation concerned. Intellectual and political *dissent* should not be equated with disloyal *actions;* nor should *action* dangerous to the nation be defended on the grounds of academic freedom. Somehow a university must serve the modernization and nation-building process but still be free to criticize it. Somehow academic and governmental authorities and the public interests must work out methods of consultation, policy making, and university control that bring together the dual claims of national service and of intellectual freedom.

A free nation is built by the process of arriving at consensus through considering alternatives, not by imposing orthodoxy. A university has the obligation to train teachers who possess a loyalty not only to their country but to the principles of intellectual reedom. If it does *not* do so, it is not aiding the modernization process that leads to freedom. It runs the risk that new generations may never learn what freedom is if their teachers have never known it in their own education.
A human resource development plan for an African university that genuinely seeks to adhere to "world academic standards" will not tamper with freedom of thought, the brightest symbol of true modernity.

Reckoning with Tradition

This brings me to my second proposition:

A general theory of human resource development for universities must face the reality of what African leaders say they want with respect to their universities *and* national development; it must *also* recognize the strength, the tenacity, and the continuity of the varying overseas university traditions that have already been established and are more or less flourishing in Africa today. And I might add, with some convinction, a flourishing university is a peculiarly resilient, enduring, and tough specimen of human organization. The history of higher education in the world is replete with many instances of university types of institutions that have survived the march of warring empires and out-lasted many forms of government and of dynasties. Even the fairly short history of higher education in America, which I know best, shows a strong bias toward tradition and reluctance to embrace change. So our plans for human resource development must include a realistic strategy for the introduction of change and innovation in universities, a strategy to which many educational planners have not given much thought.

Despite the strength of continuity, or as some would say, of inertia in universities, change does come about, and as often as not it have come about from the process of cultural borrowing and international transplanation or influence. I would be tempted to argue that the most vital and creative university institution in history have been those that did borrow ideas and adopt forms from other countries and other peoples rather than those that shut themselves off from outside influences and confined themselves to their own culture-bound institutions. Fascinating as such an historical argument would be, I must abstain from its pleasures at this time to return to the problems raised by the fact that most present African universities have been modelled principally upon British or French university traditions. There is even some evidence that a few of them are in danger of being subverted by a creeping Americanism.

Now, what does it take to change and to adapt these university traditions to African conditions, the better to meet African needs and to build truly African universities? In the view of some, these traditions of western university education at their best make the university a repository of the highest expressions of human intellectual achievement and man's creative expressions. In the view of others, such traditions at their worst display a narrow and pedantic preoccupation with the socially unimportant. The truth probably embraces both judgments in some form. Proud and jealous academic faculties probably view themselves in the former image; impatient and single-minded one-party governments may hold the latter view.

The task of reconstructing universities to meet African needs is basically the passing of judgment upon the value of the university traditions that have been transplanted and the finding of ways to reorganize a basically stubborn organism without impairing its essential vitality or destroying it altogether. The task is not only complicated by the confrontation of European university traditions with present African life and culture, but also by the differences in university style that characterize British or French or American traditions as they confront each other in Africa, or as they appear to compete with one another for African educational loyalties.

Personally, I am inclined to believe that there is a still more pervasive problem than that of competition between British or French or American conceptions of university education, namely, the persistent differences of view that exist within the respective national university traditions. I cannot speak with intimate knowledge of the history of British or French higher education. But I sense some differences between the humanistic traditions epitomized by Oxford and Cambridge on one side and the more practical pursuits of the University of London and the newer British universities on the other. We hear that the "two cultures" do not always see eye to eye and that massive changes in British higher education are being contemplated in the recent report of the Robbins Committee, including, I am interested to note, radical proposals with respect to the teacher training colleges. Virtually since the beginning of modern university education in the West some variation on the theme of conflict between the sciences and the humanities has held prominent place. The end is probably not in sight.

What is sometimes not so well known is that similar differences have existed in the history of American higher education. We have in our far shorter history probably surpassed all the rest of the world in one thing at least: the volumes of words devoted to public discussion of the aims of higher education. We have long debated the values of the liberal versus the vocational, the cultural versus the practical, the theoretical versus the technical, the general versus the specialized, and pure scholarship versus service to the state and to the nation. By and large the advocates of scholarship as the prime function of a university have tended to be "restrictionists" in their attitudes toward the service functions. They have argued that a university must be limited and restricted to the bounds of the accepted intellectual and scholarly disciplines. They are likely to be suspicious, not to say contemptuous, of proposals for new courses, degrees, departments, applied research, or services that they feel may dilute the standards of scholarship. Home economists and educationists alike have often felt the sting of these agruments.

In contrast, the advocates of service functions have generally been "expansionists" or "extensionists." They can see good reasons why this or that problem deserves research. The extensionists especially set their stamp on American land-grant colleges and universities as agents for meeting the needs of American national development in the 19th century.

It may be that on balance American higher education has responded more fully to the claims of the extensionists, the vocational and the professional, the practical and the technical, and the ideal of service than have British or French universities with their strong allegiance to the humanities. But my point is that each national tradition has been characterized by a variety of views, if not a conflict of views, concerning the proper role of a university.

Thus, when Africans come to establish their own distinctive university traditions the real choice is not to select from among British, or French, or American models, but to choose among such value alternatives as I have mentioned. It is easy for some planners or human resource strategists to jump to the conclusion that because African and Latin American universities have been weighted into the past too heavily on the humanistic side, therefore the new universities should stress service to national development by greater emphasis upon the scientific, the technical, the professional, and the practical. They may be correct in individual cases.

My own predilection, however, leads me to say that a university that takes seriously the task of human resource development must serve liberal as well as professional and vocational goals; it must serve both theoretical and technical ends; it should have room for general as well as for specialized studies. It should not embrace illiberal or anti-cultural studies. Whether in the humanities or the professions, illiberal studies exalt the ungenerous, the mean, the slavish, or the despotic; they cultivate prejudice, bigotry, narrowmindedness, and conformity in thought and action. Anti-cultural studies whether in the arts or sciences are those self-serving, egocentric, or ethnocentric studies that teach the individual to see everything in terms of himself or the selfish interests of his own group, to judge everything in relation to the way it will serve his private concerns or the concerns of his own particular group or nation.

My university of the future would test all that it does to see if it serves both the liberal and the cultural: the liberal values befitting free men who have learned to be self-governing, intellectually, politically, and personally; and the cultural values whereby the individual is put in command of the resources of knowledge, wisdom, and creativity that may be derived from his local and particular civilization as well as those of the broader international and world civilization.

Having said this, of course, I have only stated not solved the problem as far as African or Latin American universities are concerned. We are still faced with a myriad of academic questions concerning whether the orientation, curriculum, quality, assumptions, and attitudes in African and Latin American universities today are appropriate to the needs of modernization, nation-building and culture. Africanization of the content is a high priority and rightly so, but this correction of an imbalance should be done without inserting an undesirable ethnocentrism that insists all over again that foreign peoples be judged by the standards of one's own group with the consequent tendency to judge them to be inferior. Can the university degree structure be modified to promote greater breadth, flexibility, and diversity while at the same time maintaining appropriate standards of achievement and of excellence? Or are breadth and standards, general education and specialization inherent contradictions in terms?

I would imagine that the basic question of human resource development facing the universities of the less developed nations is something like this:

Should universities be encouraged to embrace an increased range and diversity of studies that will enable them to train effective leaders to do those things that must be done in a developing society but which have not traditionally been done by universities and which cannot now be done by other agencies of education? For example, should African and Latin American universities offer training for primary school teachers, home economists, public administrators, agriculturists, journalists, business administrators, nurses and librarians as well as for physicians lawyers, engineers, scientists, and secondary school teachers of the academic subjects?

Answers to this question will inevitably be based upon one's conception of what it is proper for a university to do. Answers will also reflect political pressures and social realities.

Considering Political, Social, Psychological and Cultural Values

This brings me to my third proposition.

I have been arguing that an appropriate conception of human resource development must not only reckon with African aspirations but also with the nature of the university traditions in Africa and with the possibilities of change within the African universities of the future. I would argue no less that an effective plan for human resource development must envision programs of professional education in the universities based upon study of the political, economic, social, intellectual, psychological, and cultural context within which universities and teachers must work. This study should spring from a well-rounded, empirically-based analysis of social change which brings together the best evidence concerning the inter-relationships of economic growth, social trends, and personality formation.

Only in this way can we plot the role of higher education and formulate a program of professional education that will genuinely contribute to the process of modernization and nation building. Many scholars have pointed to the serious social gap between the modern-minded, western educated elites of Africa and the tradition-minded masses of the people. Few have worked out just what elements within the western-oriented education were responsible for producing this gap, and fewer still have shown in detail how a new African-oriented education in schools and universities will reduce the gap, change the attitudes of tradition-minded people, and produce the new African personality. A fundamental task of the new African university is to chart the course whereby the new

African professional will be enabled to assume his strategic task in the transitional process of change from a traditional to a modern style of life.

If the university trained professional is to play his part in modernizing Africa, he must be able to aid his people to recognize generally the nature of their traditional ways of life and to help them learn how to embrace the broader loyalties of a modern style of life while at the same time achieving a reassuring sense of personal identity. Somehow, traditional loyalties to a particular family, tribe, or locality must be broadened to embrace general loyalties to the new nation and to the old world. Social roles based upon inherited status, class, or occupation will increasingly be based upon individual achievement. The mother tongue of an oral tradition will be modified by an international language based upon written and mass media of communication. A rural and agrarian subsistence way of life will be confronted by increasing industrialization and urbanism. Social, intellectual, and geographic isolation will be disrupted by greater mobility and widening of cultural perspectives. Affective coloration and inherited religion will be tempered by rational enlightenment. And obedience to colonial or regional rulers will be transformed by the obligations and freedoms of self-government.

According to scholars of the modernization process, these are some of the characteristics that individuals are required to develop if their traditional society is to be transformed into a modern society. Far too little attention has been given to the precise role of formal education or of the university-trained professional in this transformation process, and yet every theory of social change lays a heavy burden upon "education" if the society is genuinely to change without a complete social breakdown or disruption. Central governments must not simply set out to abolish tradition but must pay more attention to the way in which traditional social patterns are to be integrated within the process of modernization if social breakdown is to be avoided. And, of course, education will play a key role in the process. Here is a vast, complicated, and fascinating realm for instruction and research in African and Latin American universities as well as in North American universities.

If we are to take seriously the generalization that education has a key role to play in nation-building and in the modernization process, then all professionals must become "modernizers." To aid in this process, the education of professionals should correct the relative neglect and low priority long given to the social sciences in most African and Latin American universities. I believe that greater stress and attention should be given to political science, economics, sociology, anthropology, social psychology, as well as to history and human geography. I urge that a higher priority be given to such studies as a means of increasing the usable, empirical, objective knowledge required for general citizenship and for professional leadership in solving the many social problems facing the new nations and training up the younger generation in habits of rigorous, reflective, and critical thought.

Many social scientists are struggling with the problems of the inter-relationship of the several social sciences and the possibilities of an interdisciplinary or integrated approach to the social science curriculum in the African or Latin American secondary school and university. Some believe that an interdisciplinary education is necessary because the real problems of nation-building and modernization are interdisciplinary. Intensive specialization may be appropriate for training in the technical professions but not for leadership that must face the complicated current needs of Africa or Latin America. Some believe that all university students should be required to take interdisciplinary or integrated courses in African studies or African institutions. This would be a major revolution for some universities; it would be a major academic exercise requiring great ingenuity and great perseverance wherever it is tried.

Whatever the decision about the proposal for compulsory general courses in African studies based upon the social sciences, it seems to me that African universities must somehow find ways to provide students with a measure of concrete experience in political, economic, and educational affairs as well as to pass on to them systematized bodies of knowledge. So great is the demand for trained manpower that for many years to come fresh graduates will be obliged to take up posts of great responsibility without the opportunity for seasoning experience. Universities must somehow shape their program of training in such a way as to fill this gap in practical experience. They must somehow prepare political leaders for their responsibilities as well as give specialized training for skilled personnel in the professions, in management, and in administration of public and private enterprises. This poses a fundamental problem for the role of knowledge in social action. It may rub against the grain of a university tradition that has provided indirect training for administrative and leadership positions rather than direct training. But the needs are so urgent that research as well as training should be mobilized on these problems.

Approaching the Task of Human Resource Development

How then should we of North American universities approach the task of human resource development in the universities of Africa, Latin America, Asia, and Europe? I believe basically that we must enter into close cooperative association with them to work out joint programs of instruction, service, and research. We must form a series of university networks in which the universities of several nations join together to work on their mutual problems of national and international development.

The mood of the free world has changed. No longer is it justifiable for agents of a home nation to go among another people to preach, to trade, to govern, or even to advise, to teach, or do research with the primary purpose of benefiting the "senders" and giving little attention to what happens to the "receivers." We now must believe that the world needs international efforts that are genuinely cooperative, that will cross national and cultural boundaries for the mutual benefit of the self-determining values of both societies. Two-way cooperation among equals is the only self-respecting path for education to take. The promoters of international education must recognize this fact and act accordingly.

These, then, are some of the questions that face us: Can we put the best qualities of American education (qualities that have given both substance and vitality) at the disposal of other countries in such a way as to meet their needs and not impose our system upon them? Can we produce a new breed of international American professionals, more sturdy, more self-reliant, more versatile--and more altruistic and knowledgeable-- than any we have hitherto produced?

Can we prove to the peoples of the world that the surest foundation for nations that would be both modern and free is an education that enables men to think for themselves with free and disciplined minds, to govern themselves with uncoerced participation in public affairs, and to fulfill themselves with dignity and security of person?

I believe that we can and must do these things. And to do them I believe that we must move quickly and surely to create with our colleagues overseas a network of associated universities. In this enterprise we need the close and continuing cooperation and support of our government, the host governments, the private foundations and donor agencies, and the universities, teacher training institutions, and school systems of both the sending and the receiving countries.

We already have some experience along these lines. We have formed alliances among colleges and universities of a number of countries; we have formed international groups of educational institutions bound together for the selection and training of teachers and the improvement of teacher training institutions. We at Teachers College have done this in the Teachers for East Africa project under AID auspices. We have also done it in our Afro-Anglo-American Program for Teacher Education, in which a dozen universities on three continents work together with financial support from the Carnegie Corporation. Other American universities have established liaison with sister institutions in other countries.

I believe that such arrangements as these provide a clue to the best type of future educational relations among nations. Genuinely cooperative arrangements are the only proper means by which education can promote the modernization of societies among equals. The importation of ideas or institutions from the outside or their surreptitious insinuation within the culture of a people without their consent stamps the importation as "alien goods" and thus a threat to the freedom of the "receiving" people.

Here again an international association of free universities can provide the answer. It not only removes the alien church, the alien government, the alien property owner, or the alien army from the direction or control of the modernization process, it gives the best promise of building the surest foundations for freedom in the future. It relies upon the open and free process of education for the promotion of ideas, not upon secret manipulation or furtive seeking of power. It is under the control of the poeple concerned and not directed from afar. It is made for those who are determined to direct their own destinies. I believe it can become the intellectual instrument for a coming world-wide civilization based upon knowledge and education, not upon military might or political power or economic superiority or religious authority. It can herald the dawn of a new educational civilization.

HELPING FOREIGN UNIVERSITIES DEVELOP HOME ECONOMICS PROGRAMS

by Kathleen Rhodes*

The Human Resource Needs of the Country

My comments cannot apply to all foreign universities, except in so far as they apply to all universities. They will apply to a university in a developing country such as the one in which I have recently had the privilege of working. So far as I can gather from hearing and reading reports of work in other developing countries they may have some general application. However, when I say this I am reminded of the motto on a local "mammy" bus in Accra, Ghana, which reads, "Nothing is permanent."

I have been working in Ghana, West Africa, where the university has been modeled in the classical British tradition and where the traditions, beliefs, and practices of western civilization have been considered of major importance. Patterns of adaptation are already emerging. African nationalism and African culture studies are increasing, but there is no rejection of western economics, science and technology. Western control as exemplified by expatriate administrators is being rejected and foreign aid is regarded with some distrust. But the English language, western academic standards, and expatriate teachers are welcomed. Formerly the curriculum was predominantly British in pattern and content; now there is increasing concern that the curriculum should meet national needs, first to train the manpower required for the number of professional jobs available, and second to make the students aware of African civilization. There is a constant tug-of-war between faculty members valuing the classical tradition and those valuing the utilitarian outlook required for rapid economic development. In Africa the university is a powerful instrument of change and therefore must work hand in hand with the state -- it cannot stand aloof from the government.

After graduation, the university graduate will probably serve the government in some way, for the government increasingly requires the university to devote attention to job training in agriculture, engineering, technology, home economics, and business administration. The student has to leave the matrix of his family and village and take on traits which help him to be successful in a technological society -- to be conscious of time, to be responsible for himself, to learn new customs and new values. How can the young university graduate in home economics who has learned to be respectful to all older people learn to teach adults without diminishing that respect? How can she assume a leadership role among her people when already her education may be separating her from her family. Is it any wonder that, in spite of the favorable position of women in Ghana, they have more difficulties than we realize in coping with the responsibilities and privileges thrust on her by a college education?

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Perhaps one of our main jobs in home economics is to keep the home economics graduate in touch with her reason for being at the university -- the homes and families where she is to act as a change agent. Any university graduate is somewhat of a "marginal man," particularly the home economics graduate. How to help such graduates keep this delicate balance and deny neither their home background nor their new knowledge and status is a problem that must be solved.

The primary purpose of home economics at the university level in developing countries is the expectation of increased economic growth through the development of human resources. Education is both the flower and the seed of economic growth; there is a high correlation between per capita gross national product and secondary and higher education enrollment. However, certain sorts of education may be said to be productive of economic growth while other types have little relation to such growth. By emphasizing the development of people through improved practices in child rearing, housing, food, clothing, management and disease prevention, the study of home economics is essential in the development of human resources. Anyone with a home economics education can exert a useful influence on their community whether they are professionally employed or not. Some of the most influential women in Ghanaian communities are those who have learned principles of nutrition, health, and child rearing and are practicing these in their homes and communities, albeit at a simple level.

Another reason why governments are interested in home economics is, I believe, that the struggle to achieve rapid and self sustaining growth is likely to be long and arduous. The development of university home economics graduates who understand this can stimulate the training of other home economists at lower educational levels who can profoundly influence home and family practices towards healthy living and careful management of available resources.

The need for home economists in developing countries is probably greatest at intermediate or sub-degree level. It does not take a college degree in home economics to teach children or their mothers the things they need to know about food, clothing or shelter. But a college-graduate is required to find out what needs to be taught and to teach the teachers. A country that omits provision for this high level work may find itself with a program that is based on routine skills and makes little or no provision for the urgent needs of development. Similarly a country that depends on sending its ablest women for education in another country cannot expect to develop the needed research very rapidly, nor can it expect that graduates trained overseas will have the needed expertise in local customs and resources as those who have learned research methods in their own country.

It has been said by the noted economist Frederick Harbison that in the developing African countries one third of all university graduates should enter the teaching profession.[1] This, I think, is an under-estimate of home economics where the majority of university graduates will be needed to engage in teaching as they train teachers, community development workers, extension and nutrition officers or day-care nursery directors. In addition, it is estimated that at least three persons are needed in a sub-degree category to each one at the university level. Well educated university graduates are essential to train these and also to carry the heavy burden of in-service education which will be necessary to improve practices as more becomes known about family problems in Africa.

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[1] Frederick Harbison, "The African University and Human Resource Development," paper presented at the Conference on the African University and National Educational Development, Afro-Anglican-American Program in Teachers Education, Columbia University, N.Y., September 1964.

In helping with plans for a university home economics program, among the first steps a foreign consultant must take is a careful study of the country's plan for development, if such a plan exists. In addition to conferences with university officials, I found that study of the Ghana Seven-Year Plan and conferences with officials of the Manpower Planning Board and in the ministries concerned with health, welfare, education and agriculture of enormous value. Reference to the Seven-Year Plan immediately pointed up certain goals consonant with the development of university plan for home economics.

These goals were:

a. Individual Ghanaian able to enjoy a modern standard of living in his home.

b. The development of the productive capacity and efficiency of the nation's economy

c. Health and nutrition improvement; better child rearing practices (1800-2700 calories a day)

d. More and better sources of food produced internally (food processing to be improved -- better use of fish and cereals)

e. Improved housing

f. Training of skilled manpower at all levels

g. Increase in all educational services with emphasis on compulsory primary education and adult education and preparation of middle level employees

h. Development of Volta Electricity Scheme -- economical and efficient housing for relocation settlements, use of electricity in the home, and community and home development.

i. Preventive health care for mothers and children because of a scarcity of doctors and health units

j. Management of individual and family resources in order to conserve the country's resources

k. Increased use of women as part of the wage earning population

Each of these items taken directly from the Seven-Year Plan and confirmed by conferences with ministry and university officials emphasizes the need for a comprehensive program of home economics from the university to the rural home level.

The Total Plan for Home Economics

A plan for home economics at the university level must grow with and from a total plan for home economics. Such a total plan includes teacher training at sub-degree levels and programs in school and for adult education. The university program may be a small one, but without a system of home economics it can be like a body without eyes, ears, and brain to provide new knowledge and stimulation. It is obvious, too, that the university department must work closely with the appropriate government departments so that they may complement each other in the improvement of the total program.

In Ghana there is a long established system of home economics in the middle schools, where girls learn food preparation, housecraft, and needlework throughout the four years they are there. Most of the girls' secondary schools have some plan for housecraft instruction and many girls take the West African Examinations Council "Ordinary" level examinations in this subject after five years of secondary school. Teacher preparation for middle school housecraft teaching has been going on in the country for many years. Teacher preparation for secondary school teaching was, until recently, accomplished by sending able women with teaching experience to the United Kingdom for study at a domestic science college for teachers. In community development and food and nutrition education, somewhat the same system was used, local training for people working at lower levels and overseas training (usually in United Kingdom) being provided for people at higher levels. The rapid increase in school enrollments and the urge towards greater Africanization resulted in the government's decision to establish additional training centers for middle school teachers, a diploma course for secondary teachers, and a degree course for teacher trainers, supervisors in adult education activities and persons engaged in research and development related to home and family practices. A major need still largely unmet in Ghana is formalized home economics training for community development supervisors, food and nutrition board officers, and home economics extension agents to work in agricultural extension.

The degree program at the university is seen as a potential "power house" to engage in research, to develop a resident teaching program for qualified students at high levels and to provide consultant service to agencies training intermediate level home economists and to other agencies where home economics activities are important.

From the resident teaching program will come the high level workers who will, in time, obviate the need for expatriate teachers. They will staff the intermediate training institutions, supervise the intermediate level workers, and engage in research.

I have explained this system in some detail because I think it is important to point out the way in which home economic has developed in Ghana. There has been a very thriving program in the middle schools and in community development which received its impetus and originally its teachers from overseas. Now the impetus must be provided by Ghana, and in consequence the necessary leaders must be selected and trained. Incidentally, the program itself, instead of being transported from the United Kingdom or wherever the supervisors formerly had their training, is now of necessity as well as choice becoming more truly fitted to Ghanaian needs.

The Quantity and Quality of Students

Before I discuss the curriculum, I would like to say a word or two about the students. The present entrance requirements for the university require passing of two subjects in the West African Examination Council's "Advanced" level examinations after seven years of secondary school or 15 years of total schooling. This is accomplished by approximately 60 girls each year in Ghana, although secondary school enrollment is increasing rapidly and this number may be expected to increase. Also the total years of schooling prior to university is to be cut to 12. Meanwhile, however, the university, in response to the urgent need for increased enrollment to prepare high level workers, has introduced a scheme for pre-university preparation which allows the student to enter at an earlier age and complete the preparation in a shorter time than if she remained in secondary school. Even so, we cannot realistically expect a large enrollment in the Department of Home Economics for some time because of the relatively small enrollments of girls in the university and because home economics is not yet recognized by many of the girls secondary schools as a university subject. (In 1964, 172 men were granted a bachelors degree and only 28 women.)

This is, I believe, a matter which time will take care of. In the diploma program with which we also have been helping there were 30 applicants in 1963, 75 applicants in 1964, and 120 applicants in 1965. The enrollment has increased not only because the course is becoming better known but also because increasing enrollment in secondary schools and the larger number of free places available.

In Ghana the woman university student is most frequently from the coastal area and the daughter of an educated father. Many are the younger child in the family. Nearly half of the girls come from homes in towns with at least 20,000 inhabitants and more than half of the fathers are employed in clerical and professional occupations. This has serious implications for home economics since the trend towards urbanization and the known reluctance of college graduates to take jobs in rural areas may make it difficult to fill the jobs in rural areas and the northern region, which has so desperately needed skilled help. Some way of increasing the scope of recruits must be found, and it may be that as secondary schools increase and the country has some of the conveniences enjoyed by towns there will be less difficulty in placing graduates in rural areas.

A test of vocational interest of all girls in the fifth grade ("form") of four secondary schools showed that occupations related to home and family living rated as high as did occupations which had a scientific trend. The Maslow Social Personality Inventory showed that the girls rated low compared with their American counterparts on self confidence. This is not consonant with the story one usually hears of self- reliant confident West African women. Yet from personal experience I would say that the self-confidence comes with increasing maturity and it is not culturally appropriate for a young unmarried woman to be in anyway aggressive. Neither her previous home or school experience has encouraged this.

It seems, therefore, that a study of the anticipated student body is very worthwhile in telling how many are likely to be available and what sort of people they are. Our experience with helping to build the diploma program to provide workers at a level next below the degree program has been invaluable in helping us estimate the number and sort of student we are likely to attract at the university. The level of entrants is also critical. The subjects least frequently taken for the West African Examination Council ordinary or advanced level examinations are chemistry, physics, and mathematics. Only 15 women students passed the subject in 1964. Clearly the students admitted to home economics cannot be of lower level than any other students in the university. However, the present system of advanced level examinations in secondary school is not entirely suitable since a student usually specializes in either an area of science or the humanities. Therefore, the proposed system of university preparation or promotion form the diploma course whose curriculum contains natural science and social science at the equivalent level is seen as a preferable method of preparation. This method of pre-university preparation is increasing in use in West Africa and presents a partial answer to the problem of training higher level manpower.

The Curriculum

The principles of curriculum building are universal. This involves a study of societal needs, of learners' abilities, of the general goals of the institution and of the discipline concerned -- followed by a careful selection of appropriate content and learning experiences with a plan for continuous evaluation throughout.

Consideration of the societal needs has emphasized the application of those natural and social sciences which would bring about an understanding of economic disease prevention, improvement of nutritional practices, management of family resources, the importance of child health, and the transitional status of the Ghanaian family.

Learner's abilities as revealed by pretesting indicated that learning had frequently been unaccompanied by understanding or faculty in solving problems that included the unfamiliar. Students did not have a high reserve of health or energy and they tended to lack self confidence. They were usually the first women in their family to have achieved a university education. Those who had come from residental secondary schools had an advantage academically and socially, but were frequently in less touch with the community in which they grew up and knew little about the homes and lives of the majority of their fellow countrymen.

The general goals of the university concerned may vary. At the University of Ghana at Legon the goals are still closely in accordance with what is sometimes called in Africa "the gold standard" of the University of London; at Kumasi the emphasis is on science and technology; at Cape Coast the emphasis appears to be on rapid production of secondary school teachers, and at the proposed college of agriculture goals will presumably be concerned with improving and increasing agricultural products for Ghanaian use and for export.

The general goals of the home economics curriculum must therefore be decided by the university concerned, and it is the responsibility of the foreign consultant to point out the aspects to be considered in light of the situation. This is where the foreign consultant may have a problem in throwing overboard some of of her preconceived ideas of what is appropriate and looking at the needs of the situation she faces, prepared to select only the content which seems relevant and much of it in the basic sciences and to face the fact that much of the appropriate applied content has yet to be developed.

Thus the home economics curriculum should be based on a study of those principles of natural and social sciences which would contribute most to an understanding of the concepts essential to improving standards of home and family life. Students must be helped to understand and improve a society which is in transition. Therefore concrete application of basic ideas is useful primarily in enabling them to see ways to apply the principles of the natural and social sciences in many different ways. The goal should be to be as helpful in the coastal fishing village as in the new industrial town, as constructive in an arid community in the north as in a model housing estate in Accra.

This, too, may have an advantage in staffing the department since graduate home economists are hard to come by. Faculty in the natural and social sciences are more frequently available and may be the sources from which university-level home economist with post graduate training overseas may be drawn. Also I have found that faculty members in these departments have been particularly helpful in making practical suggestions for applying their subject to improved home and family practices.

For this reason, too, it is important that careful consideration should be given to planned periods of community experience during long vacations. During those periods students should have opportunity to learn about a variety of homes and families in their country. They should have opportunity to participate in on-going research relating to the family, to child development, and to nutritional status -- and to assist with training programs for young people and adults.

If the foreign consultant's work is to be of full benefit to a university and to other institutions afterwards, a plan for evaluation of the curriculum should be built in at the beginning. Pre-tests and information about the students can be developed and used as the curriculum comes into action, with a constant checking against the original statement of goals. This of course is not easy in a developing curriculum of this kind since usually a program must be started without too much advance preparation. We have been particularly fortunate in Ghana in helping with the diploma curriculum since 1962. This has provided excellent background for the next step of establishing a degree course. In the diploma program we are now about to make our first evaluation of graduates on the job, the extent to which the official curriculum is reflected in classroom practices, and the opinions of faculty and employers regarding the "product" being produced. From this we hope to gain much which will provide helpful guides in planning the university curriculum.

A multi-disciplinary approach to a field of study is not easy in a country where each discipline has tended to become solitary and highly specialized. There will be complaints of superficiality and watering down. However, if the home economists concerned can be those with a strong background in physical, biological or social science, they can be put to good use in teaching the root sciences and they can meet the scientists on equal ground and make the appropriate application in home economics.

Research

It is important that there be a planned policy for research in home economics rather than a laissez faire approach. This is particularly urgent because of lack of money, lack of manpower, and pressure of time when results are needed quickly. The need for information about homes, families, and local resources is great. Moreover, experimental studies are difficult to manage in a country where trained manpower is at a premium. Therefore the direction a research project takes should be the result of team work on the part of university and government. The project should relate to the department objective and should be so organized that staff turnover does not halt it and result in wasted money and effort. Dissemination of research results is also of major importance. Ghana is extremely fortunate in this respect: it has a remarkable amount of material available on child development, nutrition, health, and tribal customs from a number of reputable sources. However, even this material has to be hunted and collected. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that plans for regular dissemination in an easily readable form of research on the family would benefit a far wider public than in the immediate country. It would add to the total of home economics knowledge and provide opportunity for verification of certain principles we likely hold dear without sufficient knowledge of their universality.

The development of a plan for research in every university starting a department of home economics is of special importance. The amount of reliable information about ways to improve home and family living is lamentably scarce in most countries. If this state of affairs is to be remedied the undergraduates should get some taste of research methods and some encouragement to assist with simple studies. They need to be encouraged to participate intelligently in research projects when they are on the job and to embark on studies of their own which will increase their knowledge of the material with which they work. Home economists in training must learn to think and discover for themselves or they will never add to the sum total of knowledge about families in their country.

Cooperating with Other Agencies

The main purpose of home economics at the university level in a developing country is to prepare high level manpower for the improvement of human resources and to add to the fund of knowledge about families. Since this assuredly cannot be done in an "ivory tower," it involves cooperating with other agencies in planning, in lending university human and other resources, and perhaps in obtaining funds. This is important insofar as it assists the total development of home economics in a country. The rest of the country will naturally look to the university department for leadership in improving their programs. However, it may be possible for a university department to be too cooperative and in the process to lose sight of its own objectives. Another factor in the case is the faculty members' willingness and interest in such cooperation - if they do not see the value of such cooperation, it will not take place. One test is, Does the proposed cooperation add to or detract from the main purpose of the university department's existence? Another test is, Does the university department have sufficient resources for the proposed cooperation?

In-service and refresher courses, and encouragement of home economics association are a "must" if the work being done by the university is to be understood and accepted by all persons concerned with the improvement of human resources. The inclusion of home economics as a subcommittee in the Ghana Naharal Academy of Sciences has done much for the prestige of the subject.

Cooperating agencies need to clarify their roles to avoid wasted effort and tension. There is so much to be done in a developing country that to duplicate efforts or quarrel about who should have the right to do what, is not necessary. However, some lines of responsibility may have to be drawn and these can be reassessed at intervals. This may be particularly true in a country which is seeking external aid from many sources and does not wish to be too strongly aligned with any other country. A clear delineation of responsibility should be sought.

Good human relationships are perhaps the most important key to cooperation and this is particularly important in West Africa, where there are so few trained personnel. Empire building or the exhibition of feelings of superiority on the part of university faculty are to be avoided at all costs. Open lines of communications must be maintained.

Facilities

I have said little about facilities. The sciences labs, classrooms, and library of the university can be shared. General purpose laboratories, special classrooms, and a housing and home management laboratory, which embody opportunities for investigation of a variety of levels of homemaking, should be available. A department which is simple, economical, and fits the needs of the country can be extended, changed, and improved as the program develops.

Conclusion

In conclusion, let me say that the task of the foreign consultant is to present choices, not make them. The local university and/or the local government must make the decisions -- they have to live with them! There is no single home economics program which can be exported from any country and uncrated in another for local use.

Although certain principles of curriculum planning appear to have universality and to provide a guide in a variety of circumstances, it is necessary in working with a foreign university to help construct an organizaed concept of home economics which is consistent with the broad goals of national human resource development and the promotion of the dignity and worth of the families of the country concerned.

There is evidence that the potential of home economics in a West African university is considerable. Home economics is seen as necessary in the development of human resources, and there are no religious or cultural pressures which act against it. As a skill subject it has been long established and respected as a part of the school curriculum. The recent establishment of sub-degree courses has provided an impetus towards consideration of a degree course. There is considerable interest in increasing the enrollment of women in secondary and higher education, and home economics is seen as a means of encouragement.

However, if this potential is to be realized,the university home economics program must be accepted by the faculties of natural and social science on whom it will depend for its basic study. It must be prepared to start with few students until there is a larger supply of women from the secondary schools. It needs to encourage a free exchange relationship with other universities with greater resources so that consultants and staff may be obtained and potential staff sent for graduate study. A program of research is as important as the teaching since only in this way can the content appropriate to the country be built up. An active extension program is equally important since the goal of the whole university program is to train leaders and develop knowledge in order that all levels of society may benefit.

INFLUENCES ON LATIN AMERICAN EDUCATION AFFECTING INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION IN UNIVERSITY CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

by David Heft*

The influences on Latin American education to which I wish to call particular attention in this paper are those affecting higher education. However, since this is the culmination of a process beginning in childhood, I feel it necessary to refer here and there to Latin American education at its various levels.

Often, the first impulse is to catalog such influences only as problems, couched in terms to make them appear unmitigated evils, beyond remedy. They are formidable, to be sure, but their solution requires nothing more than an awareness of them, clear thinking, people prepared and disposed to work hard and efficiently, and money.

There are in Latin America growing cadres of intellectual, moral and enterprising leaders who are already on the move, changing and innovating. Besides, they appreciate and know where to turn for more of the cooperation available in the United States, other countries, and the international organizations.

Latin American education, like that of the United States, is the product of an evolution with roots in the colonial period. But, whereas in the United States education has been from the start an expression of a pragmatic society, open to vertical mobility, in Latin America it began and continued for a long time at the service chiefly of social and economic elites.

Let me dwell briefly on Latin American history as it has affected education, for history and tradition leave their mark on the present. Upon winning their independence early in the 19th century, the Latin American republics found themselves faced with the problem of educating peoples who were more than 90 per cent illiterate. They adopted progressive constitutions providing for free and compulsory elementary education, to prepare enlightened citizens. But poverty and class prejudices discouraged the masses of humble people from aspiring to improve their lives through education, and early drop-outs became common. So much so that as late as 1950 the Organization of American States had to report at its Seminar on Elementary Education that the average period of schooling of Latin Americans was between two and three years. For most, secondary education was an unattainable dream. And so, the number of those qualified for higher education remained greatly restricted.

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The social function of education nevertheless remained fixed, not only in the words of the Latin American national constitutions, but also in the conscience and minds of great leaders. Among these, in the 19th century, were Andres Bello, of Venezuela and Chile, and Domingo Faustino Sarmiento, Argentina's outstanding president. The former gave impetus to university development for the education of leaders; the latter extended popular education, founding elementary and normal schools. Improvements included the education of women and the professional preparation of teachers.

The main foreign influence on Latin American education in the 19th century was that of France, making for a centralized system and strong emphasis on the academic and encyclopedic.

Since World War I the educational influence of the United States has grown large,[1] especially since the 1940's, through the action of government, philanthropic foundations, universities, and private enterprise. So has the action of international agencies.

The Latin American countries are now addressing themselves more intensively than ever to their problems of economic and social development. They are aware that for the proper exploitation of their natural resources they must develop their human resources. Indeed, they know, as we all do, that their continued development involves more and more reliance on their own people, and less and less on foreign aid. In this undertaking their universities bear a prime responsibility.[2]

The universities must produce leaders in science and technology for the sake of greater productivity and leaders in the humanities to help lend more grace to life; they must develop teachers to train technicians and skilled workers. In doing all this the universities must keep in mind that man is the end as well as the essential instrument of social and economic progress, and that the whole process must be inspired in the principles of human dignity and social justice.

How does Latin American education stand in the light of the foregoing reflections? What is its cultural, social, economic, and political environment? What is it doing now? What promises does the future hold? "Never before," says Professor Roberto Koch Flores, "has education been so intimately related to economics, politics, and sociology."

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[1] "Education in the Americas; a Comparative Historical Review," by Roberto Koch Flores, Professor of Education, University of San Marcos, Lima, Peru, and Visiting Professor, University of Chattanooga, published in Challenges and Achievements of Education in Latin America, report of the Eastern Regional Conference of the Comparative Education Society, May 7-9, 1964, at the Pan American Union.

[2] Rudolph P. Atcon, "The Latin American University," Tegucigalpa, Honduras, 1961, reproduced, with the author's permission, by the Pan American Union, February 1963.

Before launching into these considerations I must caution myself against generalizing about Latin America as if it were one solid block. There are 20 independent Latin American countries, with three national languages among them: Spanish in 18, Portuguese in one, (Brazil), and French in one (Haiti), not to mention the indigenous languages in active use by great numbers in some of the countries.

Cultural and Social Influences

Cultural and social influences on Latin American education, more or less peculiar to the countries to the south, may be identified as follows:

Regard for broad knowledge for its own sake, as a cultural and social grace

Class prejudices, with disproportionate influence wielded by small numbers

Low rate of social mobility

Clash between strong family ties and involvement in community and national betterment

A deep-rooted tradition holding working with the hands in low esteem

Slowness to innovate

A great difference in living standards between urban and rural people, to the disadvantage of the latter, in a part of the world where 70 per cent of the inhabitants are rural, in certain countries heavily Indian

Population growing at the fastest rate in the world for a comparable area

A high proportion of youth in the population, the average rising with the birthrate -- half less than 20 years old, 46 per cent less than 15 years old[3]

The migration of rural people to urban centers, aggravating many city problems, including unemployment and delinquency

Between 75 percent and 80 per cent of the population lacking adequate housing

Discouragement of local initiative because of the hegemony of the national capitals

Poor health conditions and relatively low life expectancy

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[3] "The Contemporary Educational Scene in Latin America," by Francisco S. Cespedes, Director, Department of Educational Affairs, Pan American Union, published in Challenges and Achievements of Education in Latin America, Pan American Union, 1964.

These influences inevitably produce counter influences, like everything else in life. Latin America is slowly developing a true middle class, as persons of humble origin move up, thanks to such forces as increasing educational opportunities and growing industrial and commercial activity. The inter-American system is giving impetus to improvement of housing, community development, and other programs.

Economic Influences

The following economic influences may be identified:

Unemployment and low income among great numbers, keeping them from helping strengthen the economy

Large landholdings in the hands of a few

Low level of productivity

Low level of business administration

Dissociation of sources of private wealth from social responsibility

Conspicuous consumption and the disinclination to put off the immediate pleasures of consumption for the sake of producing capital for investment

Faulty tax collection

Unstable economy based on one or two principal raw materials at the mercy of world market fluctuations

As in the case of the social influences, counter forces have begun to make themselves felt. In Latin America, where the idea of the common market originated (though Europe made much of it first) there are two regional groupings for economic cooperation, one in South America, the other in Central America. The Alliance for Progress has helped spur the countries to higher levels of organized economic activity.

Political Influences

These political influences may be listed:

Centralized government

A power elite in many cases identified with the oligarchy

Instability promoted by social injustice and economic royalism

Frequent interruption of the regularity of democratic processes

Government playing an important role in social, economic, and educational affairs

A low level of public administration

Here also we see things happening as the forces favoring a better life for the common man clash with those that tend to maintain traditional privilege. Not all the changes are extreme, as in Cuba. A number have given proof of political and democratic maturity. Such is true of Chile, for example, whose president, Eduardo Frei, is making a deep impact on the world with his "revolution in freedom." In Chile democratic government, broadly representative of the people, and a program seeking to accomplish real improvements in daily life have earned the genuine loyalty of the people and given them good reason for confidence in their leaders.

To undo injustice or to keep justice secure, such leaders, respectful of each individual's dignity, are eternally vigilant against tyranny in all its forms, of both the left and the right, all the time.

Higher Education in Latin America

Concerned with keeping the subject of Latin American education within my grasp, I am going to limit the following observations to higher education.

Educational Influences

We have taken a brief look at social, economic, and political influences on Latin American education. Now let us examine some of the educational influences on education, which like all processes constantly produce feed-back.

Although the Latin American university antedates the United States university, it has changed much less than ours. Until recently life has been passing it by. But, as in the case of the social, economic, and political state of affairs, Latin American higher education is astir. It is in the process of self-evaluation, and some universities have initiated reforms to strengthen them for the three-fold task they recognize as their responsibility: to educate, to deepen and broaden research, and to help meet the needs of their local and national communities.

The educational problems of Latin American higher education are, of course, part and parcel of the social, economic, and political situation outlined on the preceding pages.

The Student Body

A striking revelation is made in the enrollment figures published by the National Autonomous University of Mexico. As of 1962, the socio-economic background of its Mexican students was as follows: working class, 52.2 per cent; middle class, 43.8 per cent; wealthy, 4 per cent. The fact is that Latin American universities are faced with a student explosion, which is part of the general population explosion and of the revolution of rising expectations. These data refer to a total enrollment of 69,000 Mexican students, including about 25,000 in the preparatory pre-university courses, of which more will be said later.

Of special interest here is the fact that in Latin American universities female enrollment is keeping pace with male. Perhaps those wishing to extend home economics education in the universities will find additional leverage for their cause in this fact.

The heavy influx of students is, however, deceptive, as we can see from the great difference in enrollment between the first and last years. There is great attrition in the form of drop-outs and failures, even well before the final year.[4]

Besides economic pressures, a major reason for that is the faulty preparation many Latin Americans bring with them from the secondary school.

The Teaching Staff

Latin American education suffers from an acute shortage of teachers at all levels, especially professionally prepared ones. In the universities this is compounded by widespread dependence on part-time staff members, whose main activity is the practice of professions or business careers outside education.

To the credit of the university as an institution it should be recalled that many successful professional and business people are eager to be professors, even as little as three hours a week, because of the prestige it gives them.

The University

Now let us take a look at the Latin American University itself and see what makes it tick as it does.

This is an autonomous institution, in most cases public; it depends for its budget entirely or almost so on the government. (The government also gives some financial support to private universities, the great majority of the latter being Catholic.) Modern university autonomy in Latin America was won in 1918 in a movement arising in the University of Cordoba, Argentina, sparked by the students.

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[4] "America en Cifras 1963," Vol. V, Situacion Cultural, Union Panamericana, Washington, D.C., 1964.

Autonomy meant freedom from political interference. It also meant co-government, i.e. student participation in running the university. While it has served this purpose well, autonomy has, on the other hand, contributed to the further isolation of higher education in an ivory tower. That accounts in part for the lukewarm interest shown by many universities in the problems of secondary education, specifically in training teachers for the secondary schools. All is not lost, however. More and more bright spots are appearing as self-study and international cooperation open the university to assuming its share of the responsibility for all the education of all the people.

The role of the students in university control has led to their interference in matters often regarded as of the province of the professional and administrative authorities. Yet few heads of universities are prepared to recommend eliminating student participation in university government. Most might be glad to see it modified.

Student strikes and the closing down of university faculties, or the universities themselves, are not simply due to co-government. They are often signs of general unrest and the encroachment of national or local politics on the campus. If the economies of the Latin American countries were more vigorous and stable, students would have less reason to go all out in politics. But politics and the government do loom large in their daily lives. Yet, in spite of all, most students do not lend themselves to political militancy.

"Who are we North Americans, to talk like that about Latin America?" one might ask, remembering what has recently been happening on some of our campuses. You will recall that one explanation for such behavior has been that U.S. professors are finding their time, energy, and interest drawn toward extra-campus work away from that direct contact with students for which this country has been so envied.

Well, that is precisely one of the problems of Latin American university life. The lecture method and part-time teaching hold sway, with little direct communication between professor and students.

Hand in hand with the lecture method goes verbalistic learning, unrelieved for the most part by laboratory work or practical application.

Latin American university autonomy is so deeply rooted that we find still another degree of autonomy within the first. I refer to the individual faculties, or professional schools. It is into this narrowly professionalized educational environment that secondary school graduates are thrust, to the confusion of many of them.

Intent on solving this problem, universities in various Latin American countries have adopted reforms, including the creation of schools or institutes of basic studies, somewhat comparable to the first two years of our college of arts and sciences or junior college. Among the leaders in this movement are Mexican, Chilean, Colombian, and Central American universities, the latter through their exemplary regional system, the Central American Superior University Council.

The Latin American university has a number of other problems, all of a piece with the social, economic, political, and academic influences we have pointed out. They are of a physical, financial, and administrative nature. The most acute are: inadequate physical facilities for teaching, especially in science and technology; lack or weakness of central services, especially student guidance, student welfare, and libraries; and under-financing and financial insecurity, because of excessive dependence on the government for support.

The catalog of problems and the list of things to do are long and complex. Their solution requires painstaking review and planning. Recognizing this fact, Latin American universities have begun to set up offices of university planning.

Ancient tradition has been giving way. University leaders are urging coordination of the planning of higher education with that of the other levels of education and with the national economic and social development plans. Of course, fundamental to all this is the development of the human resources of these nations.

To bring the university closer to the community we must have a university in the community in the first place. In Latin America there is a serious gap in higher education between the capitals or leading cities and the other areas of the various countries. The main institutions are faced with an avalanche of students from far and near. So, a number have sprung up in regions removed from the capitals. What they lack in years they make up for in freshness of outlook, youth, and vigor in those directing them, and in the possibility of starting unencumbered by tradition, with the benefit of the latest ideas and accomplishments elsewhere.

Appreciation of the value of joint action has led to the creation of national associations of universities in most of the countries of Latin America. This will do much for higher education planning and financing.

Moreover, the universities of two Latin American regions have formed inter-American associations to help avoid needless duplication of personnel and facilities and excessive expense, and to promote greater cooperation and exchange among them for academic purposes, research, and regional service. The first of these groups embraces the five Central American universities, under the Central American Superior University Council, created nearly 15 years ago. The second, about a year and a half old, is the association comprising the four national universities of Buenos Aires (Argentina), Chile, San Marcos (Peru), and Uruguay.

Up-to-date leaders in Latin American higher education are fully cognizant of the value of close ties between the university and all the elements of the university. They know that the university must not expect to attract adequate support simply by resting on its long history of detached academic dignity; on the contrary, they realize that it deserves and will get such support in the measure in which it satisfies the nation and the local community, public and private, that it is rendering them real service.

A few universities have developed impressive fund-raising programs.[5]

One of the dynamos in the drive to gear Latin American universities to present development demand has been the recently elected young Rector of the University of Nicaragua, Dr. Carlos Tunnermann Bernheim. As executive secretary of the Central American Superior University Council, he did very much to make that body a model regional agency of university cooperation and reorganization. In the speech he delivered last November, on succeeding to the presidency of his university, his alma mater, he set forth a program to be carried out, if possible, during his term of office. He prefaced it with the following declaration of principles:

> Our university is the highest educational institution in a country in the process of development. Therefore, it is called upon to play a role of the utmost importance in educational development, hence in economic and social development. For that reason the growth of higher education requires planning in the light of the human resources needs of such development. It is imperative that there be greater contact among the university, the government agencies responsible for planning, and private initiative. In integrating programs for the improvement of education with economic and social development plans, we must not pass over its prime function, the formation of the whole man, including his cultural values.

This is the program Dr. Tunnermann proposed:

1. Creation of an advisory committee of persons representing the different activities of society, to serve as a bridge between the university and society

2. Establishment of an adequate mechanism to permit the university, with due regard for its autonomy, to cooperate in th tasks of overall planning of education

3. Extension of access to university education, so that is does not remain the privilege of a few

4. Extension of the base of the educational system, at the primary and secondary levels, so that no youngster capable of it is denied the opportunity of a university education simply because of his social origin

In more specific terms he laid out the following things to do as of top priority:

1. A legal, constitutional guarantee of university autonomy, to ensure it against action by those who see university problems only as political

2. Increase of the government's allocation to the university to a minimum of 2 per cent of the national budget

3. Establishment of a University Planning Commission for long-range forecasting of needs, for example, growing out of the expected doubling of the university's enrollment from more than 2,500 in 1970 to more than 5,000 in 1980.

4. Academic reform, with special attention to a cycle of general studies and the departmentalization of the basic sciences, making for institutional unity and, among other things, the stimulation of research

5. Improvement of university administration and the university professorship as a full-time career

6. Creation of a department of student welfare and guidance to involve the student more in the process of his education, thus contributing perhaps to improving his academic discipline, and to channelize vocations into modern, productive careers

7. Training by the university of teachers for the secondary schools

8. Improvement of the physical facilities of the university, laboratories, equipment, libraries, etc.

9. Expansion of university extension programs as community services

10. The establishment of a social work system under recent graduates of the university.

11. Encouragement of research and the combination of teaching with research, including joint effort in it by teachers and students.

12. Creation of an Institute of Economic and Social Research (each of the other Central American Universities has one)

13. Special attention to technological education and the opening of short courses applicable to industry

14. Continuation of the regional integration programs of Central American higher education.

Dr. Tunnermann has put the problem in a nutshell. There is not a project of the kinds he has listed that is not already in effect in Latin America in one form or another.

On being invited to speak on a topic particularly related to home economics, I pleaded ignorance and Dr. Eppright kindly left it up to me to make my talk less pointed. Now, after all, I am going to take the liberty of making some remarks about home economics. Innocence shelters me from responsibility for

for what I say, though I did inform myself a little with the help of Linda Nelson, home economics specialist with the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences, who preceded me on this program, and such sources as the American Home Economics Association.

I am convinced of the importance of home economics in raising the level of living of our people and of all people. The trouble often is that home economics is understood in a very narrow sense. I know of the recent rejection of the request by a Latin American university for a foreign professor of home economics, as being of lower priority than certain others.

I am also informed that, as home economics is supposed to be concerned with a very limited range of activities like cooking, people of the economically and socially favored classes prefer their daughters not to study it, as such a pursuit is meant for servant girls, who are, as a rule of rural origin.

The outlook for home economics may not appear very optimistic, but all is far from lost. Tradition and fixed ideas confront us with problems, not necessarily with impossible choices. If you understand the different influences on Latin American education, you are likely to find rewards for your hard, skillful, patient work in international cooperation.

Surely, curriculum development, if anything, must respond to the needs of society and those who come to us for formal education. In Latin America these are the needs of an exploding population -- of an exploding student body -- of people more aware than ever of how much education means for social mobility and greater productivity, especially in the face of the modern technological revolution -- of people who require better health and living conditions to be better workers and enjoy life more -- of millions of families who, like too many even in the United States, are unprepared to provide the initial cultural and moral environment so essential to their young for a successful take-off into school life. Home economics has its foot in the door of the Latin American university. According to information gathered by our office at the Pan American Union only few schools of home economics and of dietetics and nutrition in Latin America offer full four-year courses. In some cases they are sub-professional, the prerequisite for admission to them being three or four years of schooling beyond the five to six years of elementary education.

Schools of dietetics and nutrition are largely oriented to functions related to medicine and public health. One, at the Chilean Universidad Tecnica del Estado, does train secondary school teachers of nutrition.

The same Chilean institution also trains secondary school teachers of needle trades.[6]

It is interesting that the Universidad Tecnica del Estado, of Chile, grew out of a vocational school, the Escuela de Artes y Oficios. Herein may be a helpful hint for one way of introducing home economics into the university curriculum. The training of secondary school teachers at the university level is one of the all-pervading concerns of Latin America's educational leaders.

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[6] See Carreras Universitarias, Vol. I, II and III, prepared by Janet Lugo, Department of Educational Affairs, Pan American Union, Washington, D.C. 1962-1963.

Another approach is that of annexing a school to a university, as in the case of the Institute de Educacion Familiar (Institute of Family Life Education), in Chile. In 1940 it began to operate as an annex to the Catholic University of Chile. In 1959 it became a school in the Faculty of Philosophy and Education.

At the University of Trujillo, in Peru, a School of Family Life Education has been functioning since 1963 as part of the Institute de Cultura Femenia (Institute for Women's Education) in the Department of University Extension. Here is another way of reaching the university to help it reach the people.

The curriculum of the Faculty of Home Economics, of the University of Caldas, in Colombia, is patterned after that of similar institutions in the United States.

The Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences is contributing greatly to strengthening home economics and appreciation for it in the American republics, through model programs, training and advisory services.

UNESCO's CREFAL (Latin American Fundamental Education Center), in Mexico, has promoted education for community development and rural life improvement, including studies related to home economics. The Organization of American States takes advantage of this institution for the training of Latin Americans, financing it with fellowships.

A very special institution is the Inter-American Rural Education Center, at Rubio, Venezuela. For 10 years it operated as a technical cooperation project of the Organization of American States. As a Venezuelan national school now, it continues to serve as an inter-American center for training rural normal staff. Its curriculum includes home economics or related subjects.

Another is the center known as INCAP (Instituto de Nutricion para Centroamerica y Panama, or Nutrition Institute for Central America and Panama). This research and advanced training institution is a rich source of information and cooperation for home economics curriculum development.

Those multinational centers act as catalytic agents on the curriculum of Latin American educational systems. They serve to introduce subjects and methods or to make them more acceptable than before to those systems.

Home economics curriculum developers must, of course, be concerned with the education of women. I suppose that as the lot of Latin American women improves, educational opportunities for women will improve, and their education in turn will redound to their further betterment. This statement will, I am confident, find approval in the Inter-American Commission of Women of the Organization of American States.

This audience is infinitely better informed on home economics than I, and what I am going to quote may be carrying coals to Newcastle. But I will chance it, because it is so much to the point of the thesis of this paper in general and home economics in particular. The report of the Commission on Higher Agricultural Education, sponsored by the W.K. Kellogg Foundation, states:[7]

> The Commission believes that agricultural development cannot take place without the fullest consideration of family life, the general education of women, and the improvement of home conditions: nutrition, housing, sanitation and personal health, clothing and the cultural arts. Therefore, a vital issue in higher agricultural education is that of the rural home and family; no agricultural leaders can afford to omit it from his plans of agricultural education and research. The Commission, therefore, strongly supports the recommendation of the Bond Report to establish educational programs in home economics at the university level.

Conclusion

We have had a look at social, economic, political, cultural, and educational influences affecting Latin American education. Many are obstacles to change; some bear seeds of promise. Latin American leaders - intellectual, economic, political - are pressing forward. Their countries, in the process of modernization, do not have adequate resources at this time to keep up with their development needs. They must seek outside help and can turn for cooperation to foreign and international enterprise, both public and private. The action of these sources of assistance affects the influences on education that we have passed in review, and becomes an additional influence.

Not all the assistance Latin America needs must come from outside it. There are already strong points in some Latin American countries which put them in a position to offer cooperation to sister countries or institutions. This approach might well be used increasingly.

The Pan American Union and the specialized agencies of the inter-American system are sources of information and cooperation for all who are interested in contributing to the development of our member states. They are at your service.

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[7] Commission on Higher Agricultural Education, "Higher Agricultural Education in Colombia," April 1961, Chapter XV.

SYMPOSIUM: OVERCOMING BARRIERS TO CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Presented by Staff Members of Iowa State University

INTRODUCTION

by D. Candace Hurley*

This topic -- "Overcoming Barriers to Cross-Cultural Communication"-- implies several things. For one, it implies that good intent (which you have as you discuss and plan for the development of home economics internationally) is in itself not sufficient. If it were, there would be no need to discuss communication barriers. The topic suggests also that imparting home economics knowledge or subject matter content doesn't automatically bring about acceptance and changed behavior -- and that you recognize this. If ideas and meanings and good intent flowed easily from person to person and across cultural lines, the world would long ago have solved most of its problems.

Obviously there is more involved than good intent and content -- although both are very much a part of any communication. We need to consider what communication itself is, what is encompasses and relate this to cross-cultural communication.

Our topic could also imply that there are ready answers on how to overcome communication barriers -- a sort of 1-2-3 formula to apply when communication bogs down. But we know you do not expect this.

Communication is a many-faceted subject. Because it is, it may be examined from different standpoints -- semantics, communication theory with particular focus on the individual as the receiver, and sociological theory with particular focus on the individual and his response in light of his social environment. A symposium, therefore, provides a good vehicle by which to probe this subject.

The following four papers endeavor to set forth a communication framework. The intent is to build a basis by which you can analyze and find solutions for cross-cultural communication problems involved in your work. This framework will be made up of interrelated concepts basic to communication. If barriers are to be overcome in cross cultural communication, we need to know what we're dealing with in the first place. This understanding is basic to the exchange that goes on between teacher and foreign student, between aid specialist and counterpart, between aid specialist and foreign government official, and so on.

When we speak of communication we are concerned with the process by which people try to get meanings across to each other. It is the phenomenon that is going on right now as I endeavor to impart the purpose and theme of this symposium to you and you endeavor to interpret and respond to what is said. No doubt part of your response at this moment is in the form of sub-vocal questions to yourself such as, Will this subject be useful to me? Will I be able to apply the ideas involved.

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*Miss Hurley is associate professor and assistant extension editor at Iowa State University.

In this symposium we do not discuss means of communication, such as demonstrations, audio-visual aids, radio, publications -- though these are important. Instead we focus on the communications act itself -- what goes on. We consider why, as so frequently happens, the other person doesn't respond as we anticipated or hoped he would.

Now that we're on common ground on the subject, let us raise some broad questions which reveal the dimensions of the topic at hand:

1. Is language really a barrier? If so, why?
2. How do the meanings of words and other symbols affect communication?
3. What is the source of these meanings?
4. Can communication motivate? For example, how do the norms of one's social group affect his response to a given message?
5. Considering the barriers involved, how can we get started communicating in a cross-cultural situation?

I mentioned earlier that communication is a many-faceted subject. It could lead us to talk at length about the communication problems related to helping people adapt the new to the culture they live by, to developing adequate leadership, to helping people recognize worthwhile goals and be motivated to work toward them. Each is a sizeable problem; each implies certain existing barriers between sender and receiver that must be recognized and dealt with in real working situations.

On the other hand, this subject could also lead us to examine what the behavioral sciences say about today's man. Here we would be challenged by such authorities as Milton Rokeach, Abraham Maslow, Carl Rogers and others who stress that man has a need to know, to understand, and to be competent; that he is naturally a curious, exploratory person -- receptive to new ideas. From this vantage point, it would appear we should have no communication barriers at all.

It is evident that we must cut this subject down to a package we can handle. The following four papers attempt to do just that.

Dr. Feinberg opens up for us the intriguing world of words and gestures as symbols of meaning -- semantics.

Dr. Wells notes that meanings are not in words or things -- "meanings are in people." He sketches a simple model of a communication act involving two persons, communication mediated by such barriers as language, attitude, values, and culture.

Dr. Beal adds a third dimension, noting that behavior is the result of the social milieu that surrounds the individual. He observes that a behavioral response may not be due to communication failure but to the norms of the bureaucracy.

Professor Haroldsen, out of real life experience in Turkey, points out communications problems he found himself dealing with -- problems involving semantics, attitudes, and social pressures. He asserts the need of becoming emersed in the culture in which one is seeking to communicate.

Recently I heard three international translators discuss the problem of translating fiction and non-fiction from one language to another. Asked about the difficulty involved, one of them said, "Well, you get it out of one language and into the other as best you can."

This led me to wonder,if problems of translating meaning exist between two languages, how can a person really communicate from one culture to another?" Are cultural barriers really insurmountable? In terms of the insights presented in the following four papers, I think one would have to answer, "No, not necessarily - but perhaps we too often treat them as though they were insurmountable. Indeed, communication is blocked where one fails to take cultural barriers into account and act accordingly.

SEMANTICS

by Leonard Feinberg*

Semantics is the study of meanings -- meanings of words, of linguistic forms, of relationships between symbols and behavior. When Count Korzybski and some of his disciples like Hayakawa first proposed the basic concepts of semantics, they believed that perfecting communication to the point where both the speaker and listener, writer and reader, understood exactly the same thing, would lead to the elimination of wars, improved economies, healthier family relationships, and so on. Korzybski's early followers were convinced that his concepts were as revolutionary, and as significant, as those of Darwin, Marx, Freud, and Einstein.

There are few people who share that belief now. But there is no denying that semantics is an enormously important element of all human communication and directly relevant to the problem of inter-cultural relationships. Language is not just a means of communications; often it is a barrier -- sometimes an intentional barrier -- to communication, as in diplomacy ("a diplomat is a man sent abroad to lie for his country"), in law (each side distorts the evidence on its own behalf), in romance ("of course I love you, baby"), in war ("our victorious troops retreated to previously prepared positions"). Language is often used as a barrier against unpleasantness, against reality, against people.

Words have connotations as well as denotations, special meanings as well as literal ones, emotional implications as well as logical values. "Fire hydrant" means one thing to a fireman, another to a harried motorist looking for a parking place, and a third to a strolling dog. The word "red" has different meanings to a Cincinnati baseball fan, a painter, a bookeeper, an embarrassed girl, an angry man, a communist. Even the faculty at Iowa State took a long time to agree on a definition of "Home Economics." And the members of this panel never did agree on a definition of "communications" that satisfied all of us.

The choice of words is important. You are now attending a "conference," not a shindig or a binge. Each session has someone listed as "presiding," not bossing. The speakers at this session were introduced as "professors," not eggheads or do-gooders. And your host is Iowa State "University," an institution infinitely superior to Iowa State College.

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*Dr. Feinberg is professor of English, Iowa State University.

The people attending this conference were asked yesterday to give us examples of semantic problems in cross-cultural relations that they had personally experienced. One of you told us that in an African village you tried to convince the villagers to accept medical inoculations by stressing the fact that the doctor who would come was a helpful man. You kept saying "my friend the doctor" will do this and "my friend the doctor" will do that, and you noticed that your interpreter seemed embarrassed and halting in her translation. It wasn't until later that you learned that in that locality the term "my friend" meant "my lover." Another member of this audience, teaching nutrition in Egypt, used the term "food fad." The interpreter didn't understand it, the women didn't understand it -- and the American home economist wasted two valuable meetings trying to explain it before she gave up. And a third member of this conference, faced unexpectly by a woman from India who arrived on campus without any previous correspondence, asked to see her "credentials." The woman looked puzzled, showed her marriage license, thenin desperation pulled our her cancelled steamship ticket.

But semantic difficulties are not limited to cross-cultural communications. We have a great many examples of our own. One popular form is proverbs, which Kenneth Burke calls "strategies for living." Proverbs are oversimplifications, available for reassurance and pep talk, and conveniently contradictory so as to satisfy whatever need we have. Thus we have both "look before you leap" and "he who hesitates is lost." Similarly, depending on your mood, you can choose either "out of sight, out of mind" or "absence makes the heart grow fonder."

Words are not things -- But we often behave as if they were. Advertisers have long known this. You and I are supposedly members of the "Pepsi generation," smoking a Winston cigarette because it "tastes good like a cigarette should, "ending up in "Marlboro country" fortified by our knowledge that "Ajax is stronger than dirt." Vance Packard, among others, has given us many examples of the effect of words on sales; the same product -- soap, book, movie -- under a new name often proves farm more successful than it had been under the original semantic tag. And if concrete objects are hard to identify, think of the difficulty of defining abstract terms like "freedom," "peace," "honor," "race," or "progress."

Sydney Harris has given us many examples of what he calls "antics with semantics." When your child gets into trouble, he is wild; when my child gets into trouble, he is exuberant. If we cannot agree it is because you are stubborn; I am consistent. You are fat; I am stylishly stout.

Our language also includes gobbledygook. At a recent conference of economists, the word "depression" was replaced by "orthodox recession," and "unemployment" became "increasing disemployment." The penchant for euphemisms is spreading. There are no more failures or loafers -- there are only "under-achievers." A New York committee recently instructed its employees to stop using the word "slum"; the proper term is " an older, more overcrowded area." In Ames, you will be pleased to learn, there are no old people, only senior citizens and golden agers. Janitors have become stationary engineers and undertakers are morticians. And the savages of the 19th century have blossomed out as underdeveloped countries. Time magazine is particularly adept at choosing derogatory terms to describe people and ideas it dislikes, commendatory words when writing about its favorites -- while pretending that it is completely objective.

Communication of course involves much more than words. In an excellent book, Anthropologist Edward Hall illustrates the importance of the "silent language" -- gestures, tone of voice, accent, bearing, form of address, choice of clothing, timing. How one shakes hands or nods, or laughs, all are important and revealing indications of his basic attitude. There are, of course, too many of these variables to be anticipated. No one can provide a perfect model or pattern; some problems may never arise; totally unexpected situations will certainly appear; the relative importance of issues will vary.

There is also the basic question of the degree to which any foreigner or outsider can direct the activity of, or introduce changes in, another culture. The optimum may be not 100 per cent as the Ugly American believed (the term "Ugly American" in the Burdick-Lederer book originally described an admirable American very successful in dealing with a foreign culture). The optimum may be as low as 10 per cent.

Most foreign students who come to the United States understand, in English, far less than they try to give the impression of understanding. (So, for that matter, do most American students, as every teacher reading examinations painfully discovers.) The level of competence in English among foreign students varies greatly. Although in theory they have attained a certain proficiency, in fact totally unprepared students have been sent here for political reasons, family connections, financial considerations, and other motives which may have pragmatic value but interfere with communication. And the problem is further complicated by the fact that many of these students pretend to understand when in fact they don't. Sometimes they say "yes" not because they agree, or because they understand instructions, or because they have any intention of performing a task, but simply because their culture has conditioned them never to say "no" to an authority or, in some instances the representative of a colonial power. Sometimes students say "yes" because they are ashamed to admit that they don't understand what was said to them.

A few semantic problems might be mentioned. To us, "pass" means a grade of 70 per cent or 75 per cent. To many Asian students it means 40 per cent. The word "country" implies a unified loyalty to us that it cannot suggest to hostile tribes pushed into arbitrary national boundaries in Africa and Asia. The word "socialism" has an unpleasant connotation for most Americans; it has a pleasant connotation for a great many Latin Americans, Asians, and Africans. "Democracy" obviously means something different to us from what it means to the "democratic republics" of China and East Germany and North Korea. And a popular rat poison in Mexico is called "The Last Supper."

Semantics, then, is very important. Even if perfect communication were ever achieved there would still be other problems -- individual differences, environmental conditions, social pressures, wishful thinking, aggressive instincts. But until a reasonable amount of accurate communication is achieved -- until the speaker and the listener understand the same thing -- desired changes are not likely to be made.

WORDS, MEANING, AND COMMUNICATION

by Donald E. Wells*

Suppose I were to walk among you with a serving dish on which were a number of slices of what appeared to be a white meat. I tell you that this is a specially prepared new dish that I would like you to try. Would you take a piece and try it?

Suppose I were to tell you that it was chicken, prepared in a new way - would you be more inclined to try it then? Suppose I were to tell you that it was rattlesnake meat - what then?

Notice two things about this. First, the food substance does not change, only the label. Yet what we call it makes a difference in our response to the request. And this leads to the second idea-- that part of our response to words and to things is emotional; that is, on the basis of how we feel about them. Another way of saying this is to say that we "hear" with the heart as well as with the mind.

E.T. Hall[1] tells the interesting story of what happened to a new agricultural extension agent working among the Taos Indians in Southwestern United States a few years ago. The Taos are a very independent people who carefully guard their culture from the white man, even to keeping their way of saying "thank you" a secret. This value system, quite naturally, made extremely difficult any working with them by government representatives. But after much trial, a young agent was found who liked the Taos and who was careful to approach them slowly. All went well for awhile, but in the spring the agent found that the Indians seemed not to like him any more and would no longer do the things he suggested. After some investigation and much thought, an older man who had once lived among the Taos discovered that the young agent had been advocating a program of early spring plowing. What he didn't know, and had not been told, was that the Taos consider Mother Earth to be pregnant in the spring. To protect the surface of the earth they do not drive their wagons to town; they take the shoes off their horses, and they even refuse to wear hard-soled shoes themselves.

Hall also tells of a case where Arab villagers in a ~~certain country~~ refused to let outsiders clean up a water hole contaminated with typhoid. The villagers, it seemed, liked the water the way it was. It had a nice strong taste from the camels. It made the men who drank it strong and brave or fertile or smart, as the case might be. They saw no relationship between the water and disease. If babies died that was the will of God and who were they to tamper with that?

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*Dr. Wells is assistant professor of technical journalism at Iowa State University.

[1] E.T. Hall, The Silent Language, Doubleday and Co., New York, 1959.

The point of all this is that people respond to communication in terms of value and attitude systems as well as in terms of reason and logic. In fact, value and attitude systems probably play the major role most of the time. Consider this story from one of the participants in this conference:

A student who had received a bachelor's degree in her own country strongly resisted taking any undergraduate courses in an American university where she was enrolled as a graduate student. She felt she would lose face by doing so, and the appeal that she needed the background for her graduate courses had little effect.

Another story from this conference concerns a Scandinavian student living in the home of the home economics dean. There had been no definition of the student's responsibility in the home, but the dean assumed that she would assist in housekeeping since no one was being employed for that purpose. Over a period of several months there was no housekeeping help at all and considerable friction developed -- but no communication. Other housing was found for the student. What had been operating here, it seems, was the student's strong culturally based feeling that she would insult her hostess by doing household chores. For her to have helped with the housekeeping would have indicated that she did not approve of the way her hostess was managing the home!

Still another example of the role value systems play in communication, and of the way these systems vary from culture to culture, is shown in the varying approaches to disciplining a misbehaving child.[2] Notice what the mother says in each of the countries listed, and what the words imply:

United States and English speaking countries, Italy, Greece -- "Be good!" The English speaking child that misbehaves is bad; it is naughty; it is wicked.

France -- "Be wise!" The French speaking child that misbehaves is not bad, it is foolish; it is imprudent; it is injudicious.

Scandinavian Countries -- "Be friendly; be kind!" The Scandinavian child that misbehaves is unfriendly, unkind, uncooperative.

Germany -- "Be in line!" The misbehaving German child is not conforming; he's out of step, out of line.

Hopi Indians -- "No, no, no, that is not the Hopi way!" Hopi is the right thing, the proper way to do things, the way the affairs of the tribe, and indeed of the universe, are managed. The misbehaving Hopi child is not bad, nor imprudent, nor unfriendly, nor quite out of line. He is not on the Hopi way. He is not in step with the Hopi view of destiny and of life.

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[2] From the recording "Word in Your Ear, part of the NAEB series Ways of Mankind, distributed by the Audiovisual Center, Indiana University.

Another notion or concept can be drawn from these examples -- words and events don't have meaning; people do. There are no meanings inherent in words or in the objects and events in the world. There are only meanings in people, meanings that are evoked by words and by events. Remember the story one participant at the conference told about introducing a doctor as her friend to villagers in another country?[3]

Consider the enormous difference between what we usually imply when we use the word "tommorrow" and what a Latin American may mean when he uses the word "manana." Yet the two words are often uncritically thought of as equivalents! Or remember the story of the Arab diplomat recently arrived in the U.S. who attended a banquet that lasted for several hours . After the affair, he met a fellow countryman and suggested that they go find a restaurant where he could get something to eat. He was starved! His fellow countryman laughed. "Don't you know, my friend," he said, "that when you say 'no thank you' over here they think you mean it?" It is different than in his home country, where etiquette demands polite refusal several times while the host repeatedly urges acceptance of the food.

But if the notion that meanings are in people sounds ridiculously simple, think of all the ways people have of telling us that they don't really believe it:

"You don't mean that's blue - you mean its black."
"I mean just exactly what I said."
"That's not the right word - the right one is ---"
"But that isn't what you said!"
"If you'd only say what you mean."
"But I told you!"

The meanings that people have arise out of their experiences -- experiences with objects, with time and space, with happenings, with words, with other people. Part of this meaning is a kind of knowing; part of it is a feeling. It is a complex of what one thinks the world is like and what he prefers and prefers not to do in it. Because no two people have exactly the same experiences, it follows that the meanings each has are uniquely his own.

From this, I think you can see that communication must proceed in terms of both the sender's and the receiver's meanings, never in terms of the sender's alone. Communication can be thought of as a process of evoking meanings in people. Effective communication, then, is the achieving of communication objectives - of evoking the meanings that were desired. And this can be determined only by inference from people's behavior - the extent to which verbal or action responses - now or later - are the ones desired.

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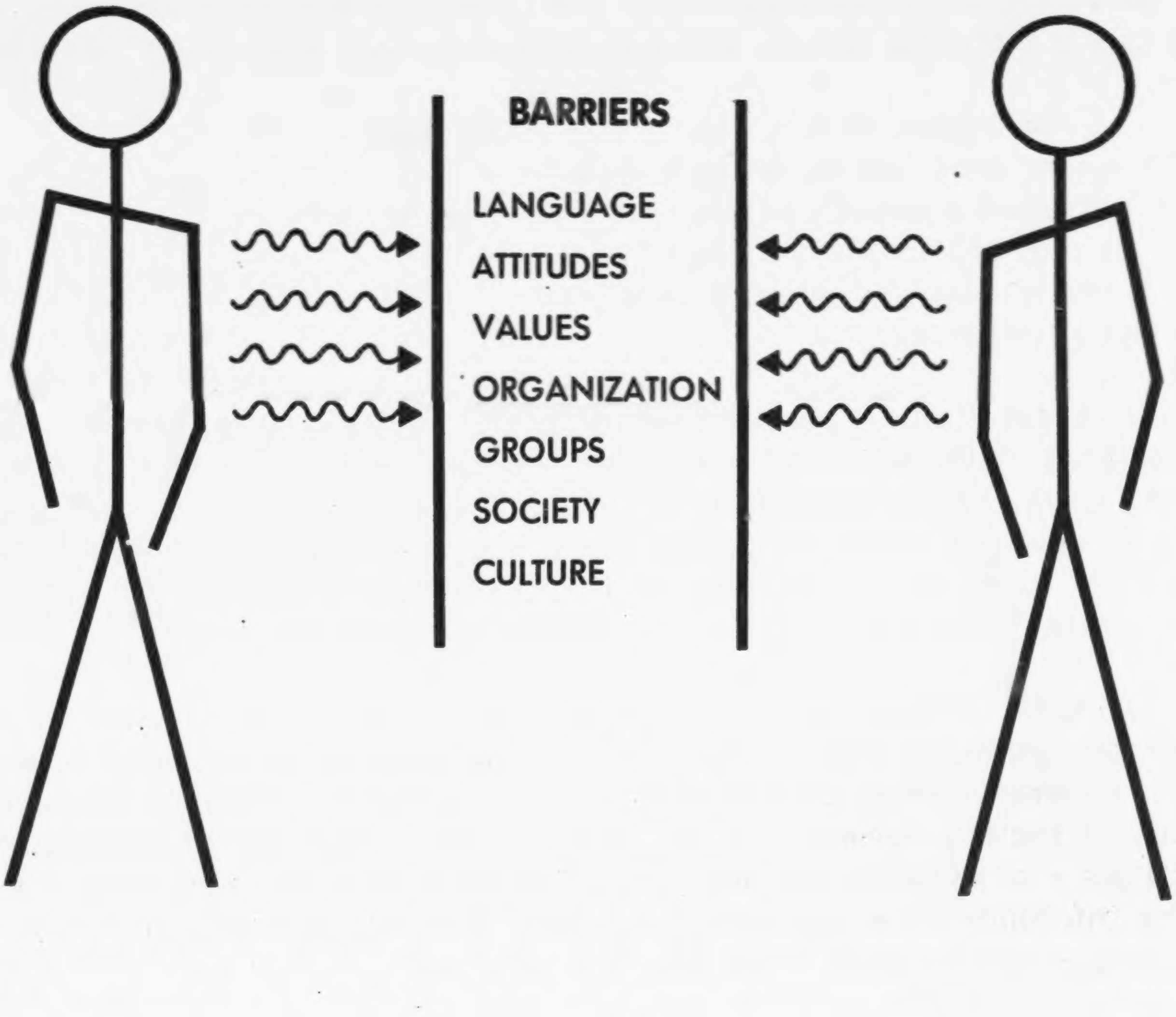
[3] Cited by Leonard Feinberg, page 103 of this report.


BARRIERS
LANGUAGE
ATTITUDES
VALUES
ORGANIZATION
GROUPS
SOCIETY
CULTURE

BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

by George M. Beal*

As a sociologist, I recognize the excellent points made by the two previous speakers.

Obviously, but in a very crucial sense, it must be realized that what a person is, how he thinks, how he acts, his beliefs and sentiments, his value-attitude structure is a result of his inate ability and his past experience world. Some of the experiences can be generalized in terms of cultures and subcultures.

I would add to the points already made the important concepts of analyzing the sender and the receiver in their social system context. Take this social context into account in understanding oneself and the receiver.

To understand a person -- and the possibility of communicating with him -- but more important to my point, his behavior resulting from a communication, one must not only ask "what" questions but "why" questions as well.

The key frame of reference for my point is the judgment of effective communication on the basis of desired behavior change invoked by the communication.

One of the clearest -- and usually highly relevant communication situations to most of us -- is communicating with people in a formal bureaucracy -- government agency, university, private agency, etc. This problem related to communication has been mentioned many times in your discussions. If we have trouble obtaining desired behavior as a result of communication, the fault may be in the communication. But it may be equally possible that the fault is not in the communication process per se but in the social system context within which the communication was received and within which the receiver must act -- for example, the norms, restraints, negative sanctions or reward system of a bureaucracy.

May I give an oversimplified and dramatized example to make the point? The example can be duplicated in many cultures. The problem -- expediting loans to village cultivators in India. These applications for loans made by the cultivators have to be cleared by civil service clerks at the multi-village level. You talk to the clerks and apparently you communicate to them the importance of rapid clearance of applications so that cultivators can secure loans for improved seed, fertilizer, and chemicals. The clerks appear to understand the purpose of the loans, the need for the loans, and the need for speed. But do they behave this way? No! Why?

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Here are some possible explanations in terms of the social system in which the clerk works. (I did enough interviewing informally to know that there is a lot of truth in the things I am going to say.) The civil service is overstaffed -- it is one way to employ many people in a country of unemployment and underemployment. The way the civil service employee proves his job is needed is to keep busy; one way he can keep busy is to find mistakes in applications and return them to the cultivators. His status-ranking in the system appear to be based on rewards attached to the number of mistakes he finds -- the number of loan applications he returns to the cultivator. Finding mistakes is judged as doing a good job.

From a social psychological point of view, being able to turn down loan applications is one way the civil servant has of proving to himself, his peers, his subordinates and his superiors that he is somebody. He has authority; people must come to him; his signature (sign off) is important, and he can affect the lives of others.

It is important to note that this behavior is not only directed at cultivators but at others underneath the civil servant in the bureaucracy -- satisfaction seems to be gained equally well from finding mistakes in subordinates' work. This situation makes the system even more vicious -- and tougher on cultivators securing loans.

Thus, though your communication to the clerk may be perfect in one sense, it may not result in desired behavior because of the norms of the systems and the means available to the clerk to maximize his values within what he perceives to be the norms of the system.

Many other examples of apparent poor communication can be explained in the social system context in which the message is received and within which the receiver must act.

You may communicate perfectly to your counterpart at mid-level bureaucracy -- but note no basic change in behavior. In all cultures, including the U.S. culture, there are many instances where training has occurred and knowledge and skills been acquired but where no basic changes have occurred in behavior because superiors have not been trained. They deliver rewards for doing a good job in the traditional way -- not for innovations. Your counterpart may have this perception and never attempt the new method recommended.

Let's consider another example at the village level. On the surface it may appear very feasible to grow two crops during the year where one crop has been grown -- feasible in terms of land, fertility, growing season, water, labor, and production. You may carry on an intensive educational campaign. Certain farmers may see the logic of the two-crop program and through your communication effort acquire the attitudes, motivation, knowledge, and skills to try the two-crop system.

They may try it one year and drop it. Why? One basic reason is because of a community norm. This norm is that cattle must be kept in compounds or be herded by children during the normal growing season. After the crops are harvested the cattle may roam at will. There is no protection from the cattle during the growing and harvest season of the second crop season; the crop is destroyed.

When we attempt to communicate, do we really attempt to analyze not only the person or group to whom we attempt to communicate but the social context in which the receivers must act? Analyzing the social context tells us not only how to communicate, but with whom to communicate and what the content and intent of our communication should be. It helps us recognize that we must not only communicate with the men of an Indian village about the Japanese method of paddy (rice) culture -- but with the women as well. Why? The women do the planting of rice. Use of the Japanese methods means that seedlings have to be transplanted, a job which women do. Unless they know the probable outcomes of the Japanese method, they resist it because they know only it means more work for them. Similarly, a new variety of wheat may produce more and be disease resistant. But it is also harder for women to grind; so they don't act on the communication.

What does all of this mean in terms of effective communication?

First, we have said that we not only must ask ourself what and how questions but why questions.

For example, we must ask not only what a housewife does but what is behind her behavior. Every social action is logical in the social culture from which it is derived. We may not be sure of the reason, but there is a reason. Until we begin to ask the "why" questions, we will not begin to get at the feelings, sentiments, beliefs, and habits behind behavior change.

Second, we have suggested an analysis of the social system context that not only produced the individual(s) with whom we are attempting to communicate, but the social system context within which they must act on our communication.

This type of analysis should give us many additional insights into what to communicate, how to communicate, with whom to communicate and realistic expectations of behavior that may result from our communication.

Thus far we have looked mainly at the impact of the social system on the receiver -- we are looking at and attempting to understand the receiver. But, the receiver is also looking at us -- the sender. We tend to think in terms of me as an individual communicating with you as an individual. Basically, this is a false assumption. If I am a member of the staff of A.I.D., or a U. S. university, or a faculty member from a Latin American University, I am perceived in terms of that social system. The receiver has some image, in varying degrees of clarity and distortion, of the social system we represent. The receiver imputes motives, credibility, threat, give-away, etc., to the social system. The attention given, the receipt, the interpretation and the response to messages sent are based in part on the image they have of the system we represent. I am not just me, an individual, but an embodiment of a social system image.

Several weeks ago I worked with Don Bogues at the International Communication Workshop on Family Planning at the University of Chicago. A relatively high level official of one of the leading foundations spoke to the group. After he finished a gentleman from Egypt asked one of the first questions. His question essentially was, "What, really, does the foundation do in terms of specific programs? When I think of your foundation I think of a great big pile of money." The image of the foundation was definitely affecting the communication process.

Often representatives of many foreign governments, agencies or foundations are perceived as a threat to those with whom they attempt to communicate. You may get defensive or socially accepted feedback -- not an objective feedback. How many of us from developing countries have been guilty of defensive behavior -- such as, "I don't think I quite understand the problem in your country as you pose it. As I see it, you are talking about a problem similar to the one we have in our country (detail problem)." Then we give a solution in our terms to our problem. We, too, are defensive.

When we are attempting to communicate, do we take into account whom we represent, our motives, our ends -- why are we really trying to communicate? What do I want to communicate? What does the system I represent want to communicate? Are these objectives consistent? Do these inconsistencies "show through" in my communication? What image am I trying to project? Is it consistent with the system's desired image? Equally important, how would all these questions about me be answered by the person with whom I am attempting to communicate?

If I have sounded discouraging, I haven't meant to be. Communication is complex but not insurmountable. The degree to which we approach perfect communication will be highly dependent on how well we understand and are able to articulate our understanding of the factors involved in communication such as:

The semantics of communication
The basic communication process
How man thinks and acts
Why man thinks and acts the way he does
The value, attitude, and knowledge structure from which man thinks and acts
The social system context in which the sender sends and the receiver receives
And my major point, the social system context in which the sender and receiver perceives he must behave or act.

Just because we have "gotten by" communicating in our own culture is no indication we can communicate effectively in another culture. We must be willing to learn, understand, develop skills, and change in relation to our own communication behavior -- just as in fact we are attempting to get people in other cultures to do in relation to the subject matter that took us to a foreign culture. Is this asking too much?

FACING UP TO THE COMMUNICATION PROBLEM IN THE REAL WORLD: THE MIDDLE EAST

by Edwin O. Haroldsen*

My colleagues have outlined certain handicaps to communication which theoretically can exist in cross cultural situations -- handicaps such as semantic problems, attitudes and values, and the pressure of social groups.

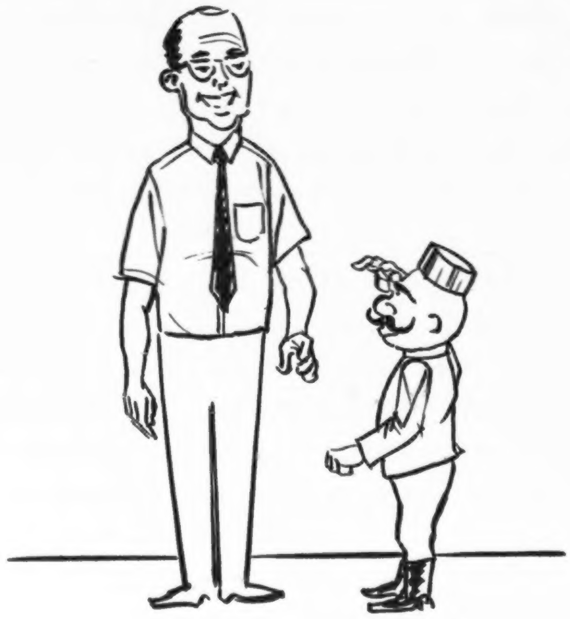
But since every human contact involves communication, how is one to get started communicating in a foreign country? Let's talk about the Middle East for a few minutes.

1. Semantics

a. Does the Symbol Correspond to the Real Thing?

How do I know that the symbol I use refers to the same thing in the real world as it does to my Turkish associate -- especially when that symbol or word has to be translated into a strange, Mongolian-type language structured very differently than an Indo-European language such as English.

For example, I once was interviewed by a newspaper reporter in Canakkale, Turkey, on the Dardanelles, and referred to as a "tall, blond man."[1] I asked our Iowa State art service to prepare a transparency to depict the Turk's idea of me as a "tall, blond man" in order to illustrate the semantics problem involving the word "tall." But then another semantics problem emerged. The artist's mental picture of a Turkish journalist turned out to be 40 years out of date. That long ago Mustapha Kemal outlawed the fez, which is a felt cap that looks like a Shriner's hat. These days you don't see any Turks wearing fezzes except in old, old photographs and books.



Idioms of speech present another semantics problem in the Middle East. A given idiom likely will call up in our western mind a different picture than in the middle eastern mind.

For example, Thornburg relates this antecdote. An Arab woman had knitted a sweater for an American girl. Later she asked how the little girl liked the sweater. The mother replied, in the American way, that the girl had been "tickled to death."

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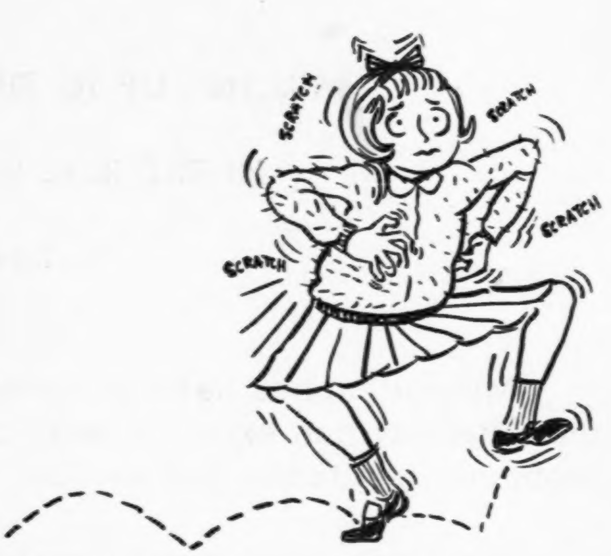
[1] Necmettin Senay, "Interview with an American Agricultural Advisor," Mucadele, Canakkale, Turkey, June 22, 1961.

When this was translated, the Arab women lifted their hands in horror. But a missionary wife, laughing herself to tears, put the matter right. What the translator had said was, "the sweater had scratched the girl until she died."[2]



b. Symbol Not Understood

Again, the thing in the real world about which I wish to talk may be perfectly understood by my Turkish friend, the audience I am addressing, or the readers whom I am seeking to reach. But do they understand the symbol I use to refer to that real thing?

Let me confess that I probably was guilty of using incomprehensible symbols several times in an agirucltural book I published in Turkey.

For example, Figure 1 labelled "Be Careful or Die" was published with appropriate Turkish translation as a caution against the misuse of agricultural chemicals. But while Turkish farm people understand poison and death, it is doubtful if they got much meaning out of a winged creature playing a harp, at least not the realatively unsophisticated Turk to whom our book was addressed.[3]

Figure 2, "I Hate Bugs," presents a similar communications problem. University of Wisconsin research has shown that humanization of animals reduces comprehension by farm readers in Brazil[4] ...and I would assume, now, that this symbol was pretty much a dud in rural Turkey.

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[2] Max Weston Thornburg, People and Policy in the Middle East, W.W. Norton & Co., New York, 1964, p.33.

[3] This conclusion is supported not only by the author's personal experience in Turkey but by the views of other observers. See, for example, Daniel Lerner, The Passing of Traditional Society, the Free Press, Glencoe, Ill., 1958, which notes the lack of empathy among traditional-minded Turkish villagers.

Also, in the same vein, the Turkish village school teacher, Mahmut Makal, in A Village in Anatolia, translated by Sir Wyndham Deedes, Vallentine, Mitchell & Co., Ltd., London, 1954, notes Turkish villagers' lack of contact with the outside world. He comments: "It was as though whole worlds of fairy tales were disclosed to me in the pages of every newspaper, magazine and book; and that terribly narrow world of mine become wider and wider while with the learning of new things my thirst for study increased." (p.100.)

See also, Douglas D. Crary, "The Villager," in Sydney Nettleton Fisher, Social Forces in the Middle East, Cornell University Press, 1955, pp. 55-56, pointing out that visits to the village of persons whose missions are beyond the experience of the peasant are incomprehensible and thus viewed with suspicion, skepticism, and often unbelief.

[4] Luiz Fonseca and Bryant Kearl, "Comprehension of Pictorial Symbols: An Experiment in Rural Brazil," Bulletin 30, Dept. of Agricultural Journalism, University of Wisconsin, April 1930, p. 17.

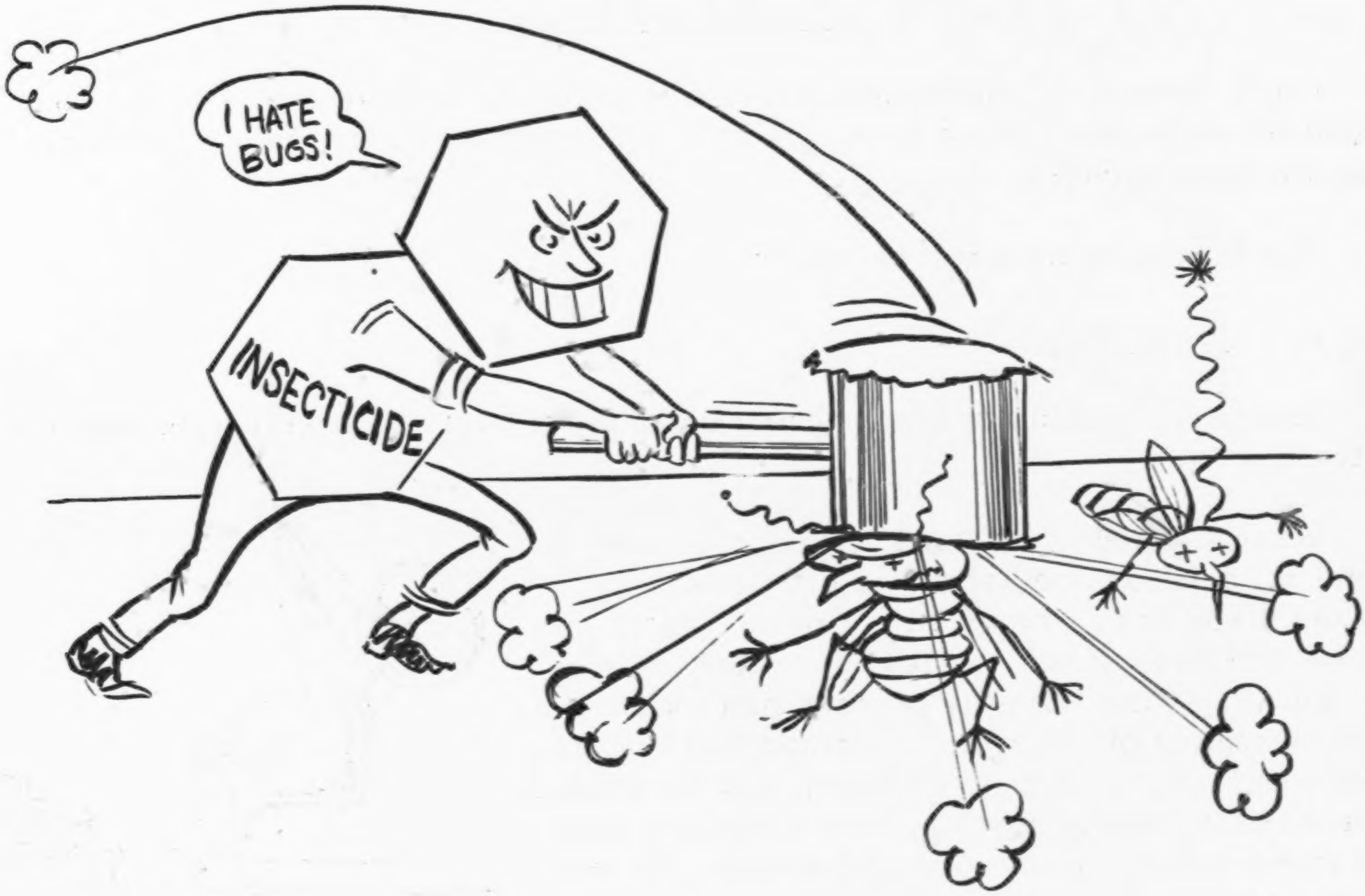

I HATE BUGS!
INSECTICIDE

Fig. 1 This is English version of illustration in Turkish book stressing caution in the use of chemicals. Indications are that it doesn't mean much to unsophisticated readers.

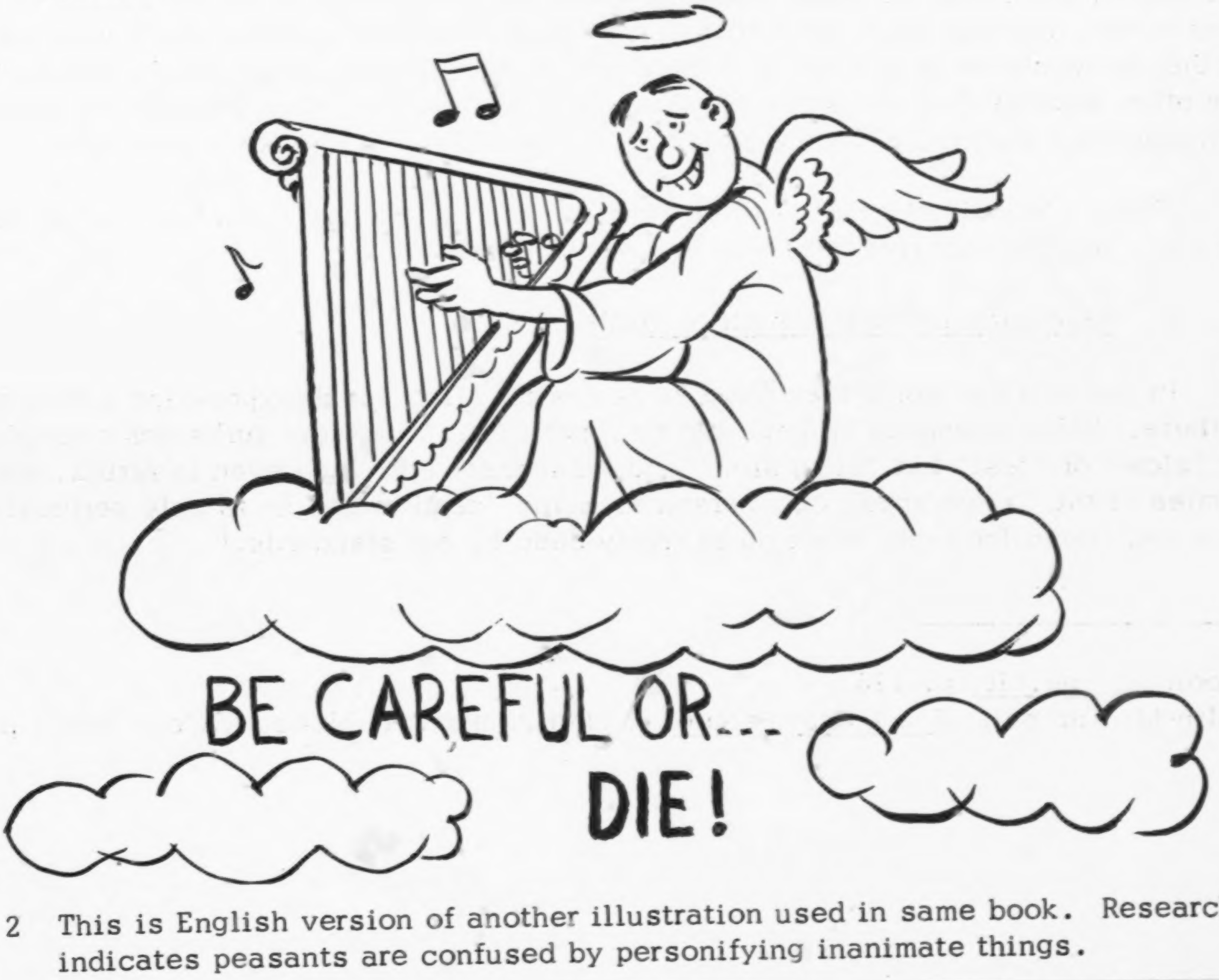

BE CAREFUL OR...
DIE!

Fig. 2 This is English version of another illustration used in same book. Research indicates peasants are confused by personifying inanimate things.

2. Attitudes and Values

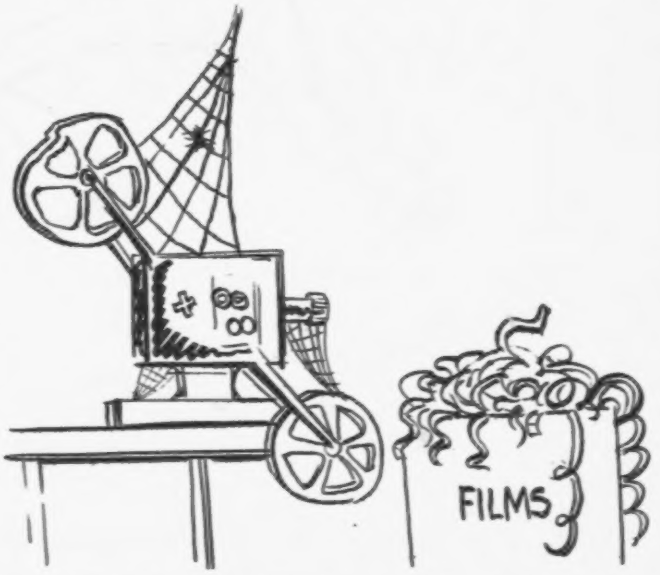
Can I identify attitudes and values of the Turkish culture that will tend to alter content of messages flowing back and forth between me and the Turks with whom I am trying to communicate?

The following are some examples:

a. Literal Truth

People in the Middle East seem to put a lower value on literal truth than we westerners do.

When I asked what kinds of things a provincial information specialist did at Amaysa, up near the Black Sea, I received a glowing report of news articles written, agricultural films shown, etc. But then when I finally pressed him for some recent examples of his work, I learned that the projector was broken and hadn't been in use for months. I learned that little if anything was actually being done in my field of mass communications. He was telling me what ought to be happening -- but portraying it as though it actually were happening.



This reminds me of an experience Thornburg had in Arabia. Eager to talk with a well-known dignitary, he made repeated visits to the community -- but the sheik was never home. On one visit, an intimate Arab friend reported that the sheik was not home but that he would be in five days. On the fifth day, Thornburg returned, only to hear from other sources that the sheik had gone to India and would not be back for months. Thornburg was annoyed at being misled -- but the friend explained it this way:

"Yes, I knew that he had gone to India. But I knew how much you wished to see him. And now for five days you have been happy."[5]

b. Repetition to Give Weight to Truth

In the Moslem world they have 99 names for Allah, each expressing a virtuous attribute. Value seems to be imparted by repetition. Thus, the Turks don't simply say "slow" or "fast" but "slow slow" and "fast fast" etc. And even in Africa, the Pygmies of the Congo speak of a person as being "dead" when he is only seriously ill -- and "dead for ever" when he is really dead by our standards.[6]

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[5] Thornburg, op.cit. p. 120.

[6] Colin M. Turnbull, The Forest People, Anchor Books, Doubleday & Co., 1962, p. 34.

Knowledge of this value helps one understand the following communications failure. Once in the Arabian pennisula a launch ran dry of fuel, and the boatman was chided for saying he had filled the tank with petrol.

"But Sahib," he replied, "I said it only once."[7]

c. Fatalism

Much has been written about the fatalistic philosophy of Moslems. And indeed, ordinary conversation is saturated with phrases such as "Inshallah," meaning, "the Lord willing," and indicating resignation to Allah's will.

Where people are fatalistic in outlook, resigning themselves to fate it appears probable that they would tend to resist ideas and challenges that would prod them to activity. This is a problem that is easier to note than to meet.

d. Nationalism

Whatever the source, nationalism is an attitude to be reckoned with in communications efforts in Turkey and other Middle Eastern countries. Much, of course, has been written and spoken about monuments built to satisfy the nationalistic pride of poor, backward countries[8] -- uneconomic steel mills and unneeded highway overpasses, for example.

At a minimum, the existence of nationalistic pride in an underdeveloped country would suggest that an outsider working there as an advisor needs to frame his written and oral communications to avoid giving unnecessary offense to such nationalistic pride lest the message be rejected before it is considered on its merits. And he needs to interpret messages received from persons living in such cultures with due appreciation of the distortions and inaccuracies that could creep in as a result of nationalistic pride.

3. Social Pressures

What social pressures are being brought to bear on the Turks with whom I am trying to communicate?

Let's consider, for example, the communications breakdown to which I referred earlier -- the information specialist who said he was showing agricultural films but whose projector had been broken down for many months.

Had I been more sociologically informed when I made that trip, I would perhaps have surmised that the Turkish information specialist was under some social pressure that affected what he was saying.

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[7] Thornburg, op. cit., p. 120.

[8] Ibid., p. 28.

For example, it is probable that he expected that what he said would be used to evaluate his performance within his own social system -- the provincial agricultural extension office -- that his status position in that system might be adversely affected if his performance were not presented as being near ideal.[9]

Moreover, he likely perceived me as a member of a higher social system, an official of the foreign aid program working directly with the hierarchy of the Ministry of Agriculture. Thus he could easily assume that the provincial extension office would be presented in a bad light to the officials in Ankara and that his own status would be jeopardized if I were given unpleasant truth -- if I were to learn that the projector was broken, that the office was out of farmer's bulletins, that the short wave radio was out of service, etc.

Another example of social barriers to communications is Thornburg's experience in seeking opinions on the needs of a dozen isolated Anatolian villages in Turkey. He tried first to get an opinion from the rank and file members of the village. But in every case the village leader or head man gave the answer. In the first few villages he urged the interpreter to canvass the group for individual answers, but abandoned this after it became clear that no individual answers would be forthcoming. The interpreter explained that individual inquiries would be fruitless unless a far more intimate relationship were established than would be possible in a single visit. Thus, the social structure of the village was such that only the head man was accorded the authority of giving an opinion to the outside world.[10]

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[9] In this connection Halpern notes that the Middle Eastern bureaucrat is vulnerable in his status and incomplete in his skills. The bureaucracy no longer has a near monopoly on literacy and education and must make its actions acceptable to an ever-growing number of people who resemble bureaucrats in all but their frustrations. See Manfred Halpern, The Politics of Social Change in the Middle East and North Africa, Princeton University Press, 1963, pp. 345-346.

In a similar vein, Martin comments on the frustration of workers in the agricultural bureaucracy of underdeveloped countries. He observes that they are at the bottom of the totem pole in terms of income and prestige but at the top of the list of those exhorted to do better in pulling off "difficult and miraculous transformations" in their country's economic development. See Lee R. Martin, "Basic Considerations in Transforming Traditional Agriculture," in Economic Development of Agriculture, Iowa State University Press, in press, 1965.

[10] Thornburg, op.cit. p. 114.

4. Motivation

The question has been posed, "What of human motivation? Can effective communication motivate?"

I would hold that whether a message motivates people to action depends at least in part on whether the message seeks to get them to act in conformity to or in opposition to the attitudes, values, and social norms affecting them. Communications research indicates that the persuasibility of communications also is related to the personality of those receiving the message, some people being by disposition more subject to persuasion than others.[11]

Closely related to values and attitudes and their affect on communication is the idea of motive for communication. It appears that communications is easier and more productive of action when it seeks to get people to do things they want to do than when it seeks to get them to do things they do not want to do.

Thus in Turkey we found that it was far easier to converse understandably with a merchant about something we were buying from him than with the maid about work she did not want to do. The merchant wanted to sell -- but the maid didn't want to do the irksome task.

5. How to Prepare to Communicate in a Foreign Culture?

General Rasmara, while chief of staff of the Persian military forces, said that if one would govern Persia he must know the tribes.[12] In terms of our problem, how do we obtain detailed, accurate information on the social structure of a foreign country to which we are sent?

Obviously we can't wait until we know all of the answers before we start communicating -- either in face to face conversation with another person or in saying something to a mass audience by means of radio or newspaper.

Learning the semantic problems, learning the correct symbols for the things in the real world, learning the prevailing attitudes and values of the country, and learning the social pressures and social groups which affect people's behavior -- all of these require that we communicate with people. We can't get it all out of books -- for much of what we need to know probably hasn't even been written.

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[11] Carl I. Hovland, Irving L. Janis, Harold H. Kelley, Communication and Persuasion, Yale Paperbound, Yale University Press, 1964, p. 269 ff.

[12] Thornburg, op. cit., p. 43.

However, I would assume that we would be wise to wait for a while before trying to communicate with the minister of welfare, the head of the university, or some other top official in a foreign culture. Communicating with such a person may be our most important single communications act -- and we may not get a second change if we fail to get him to understand us on the first attempt.

Perhaps we should prepare for such crucial communications situations by making our mistakes as we practice communicating with lesser individuals. That way we may become aware of the biggest semantics breakdowns that challenge us -- we may become aware of the most important attitudes and values of those we want to influence -- we may become aware of the important social groups and social pressures affecting these people.

My approach, before I tried to communicate anything to officials of the Ministry of Agriculture in Turkey, was to try to learn all I could about what was going on in the country in my area of specialization -- mass communications. I spent about a week "picking the brain" of a Turkish interpreter and in trying to double check what he told me. I was trying to learn how the newspapers and radio stations operated, the literacy problems of the villages etc.

However, I undoubtedly neglected a most important aspect of the communications problem in Turkey. I should have studied those with whom I was working as well as the physical facilities offered by newspapers and radio stations etc. Had I been more aware of the semantic and social barriers to understanding I could have learned more about these things in the course of talking with people to get technical information in my field of interest.

Looking back on my years in Turkey and the mistakes I made, I would make two simple suggestions on how one may imporve his communications tions ability in a cross cultural setting.

1. Work hard to learn and speak the local language.

Even if you do not become bi-lingual or proficient enough to carry on technical conversations, the fact you are trying to speak the language will endear you to the people; it will facilitate communication because of their favorable attitude toward you.

I found that Turks were simply delighted when I made a serious effort to speak Turkish. By contrast, one of the American advisors who spent seven years in Turkey was noticeably resented by some Turks because he had learned scarcely a word of the local language.

But of course language facility also is a great asset in learning the local culture and in getting access to people. Because I worked at learning Turkish and spoke it at every opportunity, I think I was able to do some things that I could not have done had I been forced always to work through an interpreter.

One of the problems, of course, is that interpreters often lack knowledge of the technical field of mutual interest to you and your counterpart in the foreign culture. Thus they frequently fail to interpret adequately. Also, of course, an interpreter may take it upon himself to censor the messages flowing between you and those with whom you are trying to communicate.

Once on a field trip in Western Turkey I discovered, despite my very inadequate facility in Turkish, that our U.S. employed interpreter was seriously changing the questions I was putting to a man from whom I was seeking information . Later challenged on this point, the interpreter offered the excuse that the information I sought might have worried the man. However, after we talked over my need to know the facts of the situation in order to aid the ministry in its program, the interpreter agreed that henceforth he would interpret my questions more literally.

2. Emerse yourself in the culture in which you are working.

Do this by associating socially as well as professionally with the people of the country to which you are assigned, by involving yourself in their institutions and activities, by "getting close" to them, etc. This is perhaps easier said than done -- and presents some problems. For example, in countries where the U.S. Government maintains military facilities, there is the problem of turning down requests by nationals to make illegal purchases of PX items for them.

However, despite the problems involved, I cannot see how one can communicate in a foreign culture without becoming emersed in that culture. Unfortunately some Americans live by themselves and never really begin to understand the local culture. In Turkey there were some who preferred their own self-sufficient world of the American PX, the American officers' club, and the American cocktail circuit. If they did associate with Turks, it was only with those in high places, not with villagers and others not so privileged.

In summary, I would suggest that to communicate in a foreign culture you have to start talking and interacting with people of that culture. It's somewhat like swimming. You have to get in the water and paddle to learn to swim. However, you don't need to get out in the deep water, over you head, until you've learned to splash around in the shallow end -- and learned what it's like to have water in your nose and eyes.

Similarly, you need to develop some facility in communicating in the foreign culture before you tackle your biggest and toughest communications tasks.

DEVELOPING HOME ECONOMICS PROGRAMS

ABROAD -- LATIN AMERICA

by C. Frances MacKinnon*

The following opinions concerning home economics in the pre-industrialized countries have been expressed or implied in the discussion of the previous sessions. Because they apply as well in Latin America as in Africa and Asia, I would like to record my agreement with them.

1. Including home economics in the curricula of primary and secondary schools in post-secondary and out-of-school education will help prepare girls and women to assume their share of responsibility in economic development -- especially in improving levels of living. In pre-industrialized societies the family is a producer as well as a consumer of goods, and in this dual role it contributes in an important way to economic welfare. Through education in home economics the family becomes a more efficient link in the economic chain.

2. To prepare home economists, a university curriculum should have a broad base in the natural and social sciences. It should be liberal enough to make the student aware of the durable human values which have emerged in the course of civilization. It should be based on realities ascertained by a systematic study of the patterns of living in various sectors of society. It should provide opportunities to test and apply knowledge in real situations and under supervision.

3. The developing countries can neither train nor employ enough professional home economists to reach all the people; thus they must provide subprofessional or auxiliary workers. The training should be planned so that auxiliaries with unusual ability may continue their studies to become professional home economists.

Unique Features of Home Economics Development in Latin America

The development of home economics in the Latin American countries has some unique features. Technical assistance has been available for more than 20 years, and it has been offered principally by three agencies with different administrative jurisdictions, i.e. bilateral, regional, and international agencies.

The political situation in the New World is unusual in that the sovereign republics have formed the Organization of American States, which not only is a political agency but an educational and research agency as well. The OAS programs in agriculture and extension are functions of the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences with headquarters in Costa Rica and subdivisions in the Northern, Andean, and Southern zones. Each zone has included home economics services as part of its program.

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The bilateral arrangements for technical assistance between the United States and individual countries of Latin America have included the services of home economists, both for extension and for home economics education at the secondary and university levels.

More recently the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations has assigned a home economist to its Regional Office for Latin America located in Chile.

All of these agencies are working in the same countries, and their home economists try to avoid duplication by coordinating their work and by making consistent and mutually supportive recommendations when advising government agencies.

I worked in Latin America in 1944-47 and I can note some changes in the areas of nutrition and home economics which have occurred in the intervening 20 years. Following the establishment of the National Institute of Nutrition in Buenos Aires in 1938, many countries established institutes or schools for the preparation of dietitians and nutritionists. These training courses are usually supported by a ministry of health or a medical school, but only a few are integrated with a university. The establishment of extension services in home economics for rural women has awakened an interest in and an appreciation for the subject that was unknown 20 years ago. However, until recently there has been little progress in upgrading home economics as an academic discipline at any educational level.

As an example of the quality of professional training in home economics we can cite the backgrounds of the participants in the two Latin American seminars which were sponsored in 1964 by FAO, UNICEF, and the governments of Chile and Mexico. The delegates were to be selected by their governments according to the following criteria: the candidate should be presently employed as a home economist; she should have had formal academic training in the field, and if possible she should have administrative responsibility for the program in which she was employed.

Twenty-two countries were invited to send delegates and all but two complied. Each delegate met the first criterion and each had some administrative responsibility for the program in which she was employed. The twenty delegates presented the following academic qualifications:

6 had university degrees in home economics
4 held university degrees in another field and had completed at least one year of undergraduate study in home economics
7 had attended short courses in home economics
1 was studying for a degree
1 had a degree in another field only
1 had no academic preparation beyond secondary school

One can only say that unremitting effort and dedication to work rather than professional preparation and competence can account for the viability of home economics in Latin America.

Reasons for Failure to Develop Home Economics in Universities

Home economics has not been developed as an academic discipline in Latin American universities for the following reasons:[1]

1. The pre-industrialized countries still have an abundant supply of women from the working classes who are available for domestic service at minimum wages. As a consequence there is no widespread interest on the part of the upper and middle class housewives in home economics.

2. As in there motherlands, Latin Americans hold in minor regard any occupation which stresses or uses manual skills. The prestige of professions for women could be listed in rank order as follows: law and medicine, teaching in secondary and normal schools, social work, nursing, "economia domestica."

3. The French and Spanish interpretation of "domestic science," as it was known in those countries 30 years ago, influences the content of instruction, especially in schools for girls under religious auspices. It can be exemplified by the emphasis placed on the preparation of dishes rather than on meal management, by the acquisition of skills in needlework rather than on learning a rational basis for the choice of clothing and the essentials of its construction, by teaching the mechanisms of infant care, first aid, and home nursing rather than the principles of growth and development as a basis for child care or the role of adequate nutrition and sanitation in the prevention of disease.

4. There is distrust of the Protestant, materialist, and affluent culture of the North with its emphasis on creature comforts, gadgets, and efficiency. It is erroneously assumed that all Americans regard divorce and birth control as proper means to the solution of family and social problems. Neither solution is acceptable in a Catholic culture. Since the home economist is educating for life in the home, the Latin American parent prefers to trust his daughters to teachers who share his own ethical and religious beliefs.

5. A curriculum which requires laboratories and materials along with more professorial time is regarded as too costly, especially in terms of its immediate returns to the economy. There is also an attitude toward the laboratory which underestimates its value as a means to effective teaching. Until recently the demonstration of a procedure has been considered sufficient in contrast to the opportunity for each student to learn by himself through supervised practice.

6. The use of part-time professors who may teach only one class precludes the organization and constant review by the faculty of a curriculum in which subject matter is developed progressively and is coordinated with relevant materials in other disciplines.

7. In many instances home economics and social work are in competition. The profession of social work has been well developed over a period of years with recruitment of very able people, especially from the upper classes. Every

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[1] Some of these reasons were cited by Dr. David Heft in his paper presented at this conference. See pages 85-97 of this report.

Latin American country has from one to 10 schools, many with a university affiliation. The social workers are likely to consider themselves the appropriate persons to guide families, and they regard the home economist as an auxiliary worker who can teach homemaking skills. It is important to remember that social workers have great numerical superiority. As an example we can cite the case of Chile, where in 1961 there were 539 social workers and 89 home economists employed by government and private agencies. In several instances the professional organizations of social workers have protested publicly the professional status of home economists, even when the latter have as many years of academic preparation as themselves.

Home Economics Education Problems

The lack of home economists who are trained to direct programs and to engage in research is surprising in view both of the length of time that technical assistance programs have been operating in Latin America and of the conditions obtaining in other professional fields which are open to women. The student completes her first stage of preparation in social work and nursing in her own country, and then goes abroad for graduate training, especially if she is to teach in a professional school. Several Latin American schools of social work have developed graduate programs which are patronized by students from countries within the region. Graduate study for nurses is available in schools of public health. Nurses also come to the USA and enter the degree programs in nursing education and public health. The availability of schools of nursing and social work make it unlikely that one would be considered qualified to administer a program in either field just because she has a degree in agronomy or law and has had a few months of practice in a hospital or a social agency. In every country social workers, nurses, and teachers of academic subjects are required to present credentials which certify their professional preparation. In contrast, nearly anyone can be called a home economist.

The lack of educational requirements for home economists is no measure of the general acceptance of home economics. According to a UNESCO study of secondary education made in 1961, every country in Latin America teaches "economia domestica" in its secondary schools and every country has an extension service in home economics for rural women. Yet it is only within the last 10 years that there has been any effort to initiate curricula in home economics at the university level. Chile is an exception. The University of Chile has had a course for about 30 years. Thus the teachers of home economics in the experimental high schools, the home demonstration agents in the Ministry of Agriculture, and the nutritionists in the Ministry of Health have university preparation, a situation which exists in no other country in Latin America.

The high cost of sending students to the United States or to Puerto Rico for four years of study for the undergraduate degree in home economics precludes the training of numbers of young women, especially of a number sufficient to furnish some with unusual ability in administration or teaching or research. Not only cost but language are deterrents. The language barrier also limits the choice of well qualified personnel who can serve the Latin American countries in the organization of curricula and services.

"Open Doors-1964," the annual publication of the Institute of International Education, lists 808 students enrolled in the major field of home economics. Of these, 383 or 47 per cent come from the Far East, mainly India, the Phillippines, Taiwan, and Japan, countries in which English is a second language and where North American advisors have been working for 30 or 40 years. There were 132 students or 16 per cent from Latin America and the Caribbean. Of these, 75 (57 per cent) came from the English speaking islands of the Caribbean and from British Guiana. Of the 20 students from Central America, 13 were from Panama,where English is a second language. Of the 29 students from the Spanish and Portugese speaking countries, 16 were from Brazil,where there is active recruitment of students to study home economics in the United States as part of the Purdue Program. It was a team from Purdue University which started the School of Home Economics at the Rural University in Vicosa. From these figures it would appear that both language and recruitment will explain, at least partially, the relatively small number of Latin American students who come to the United States to study home economics.

Instruction in home economics as a means of raising levels of living is probably more effective when given to the adolescent girl who is beginning to be conscious of her future role as a homemaker. She constitutes the growing edge of change in a way of life. With instruction that takes into account her social condition, she can learn to select and prepare an adequate diet, to care for an infant in the modern way, to apply elementary principles of management in a household and to use the resources of the community and at the same time develop a concern for its problems. This year UNESCO made a report to the Commission on the Status of Women of the United Nations regarding the access of girls to secondary education. Of the 14 Latin American republics answering a questionnaire, 12 reported that girls constituted 46 per cent or more of the total enrollment in secondary schools and two reported 40-45 per cent. As a rule, the proportion of girls to boys decreased in the higher grades, i.e., more girls than boys are leaving school after completing the first stage of secondary education. The number of drop-outs was greater in the less developed countries and in rural areas where there is less opportunity to complete the primary grades. The most frequent reason for leaving school was marriage, followed by lack of economic means and the need for the girl's earning power and involvement in domestic work. The reasons point to the need for emphasis on vital curricula in homemaking during the first years of secondary school. Such curricula cannot be constructed unless there are teachers with adequate academic preparation who can relate their teaching to the social and economic background of their students.

At present the most nearly adequate instruction in homemaking is offered in secondary schools patronized by children from upper and middle class families. The curricula reflect more interest in the exotic than in what concerns day-to-day living, more concern with the superficial accompaniments of gracious living than with the intelligent choice of essentials.

There are several unfortunate results of these attitudes, which in turn tend to perpetuate the attitudes. Homemaking courses are without content, subject matter being discredited as worthy academic material. There is lack of interest in the patterns of living of different sectors of the population, and teachers tend to be indifferent to the urgent need to adapt and enrich the content of courses to meet students' needs. Especially for the student from a family with limited means, the irrelevance of the subject matter of home economics is appalling.

Every country of Latin America is undergoing social change in one or another degree. With growing frequency governments are trying to effect social change, not by revolution but by educational and parliamentary means. The half of the population that is made up of girls and women should be prepared to take its part in insuring the physical and social health of families and thus to contribute in an intelligent way to social change.

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DEVELOPING HOME ECONOMICS PROGRAMS IN LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES

by Linda Nelson*

Thus far we have considered African countries individually but Latin America as an area. It is possible to generalize -- and Dr. Heft presented some excellent generalizations with respect to Latin American education.[1] However, we must exercise caution and recognize that each of the Latin American countries has unique characteristics and traditions as well as those which are shared with the sister republics. Sometimes we are prone to take a "tourist" view, noting the similarities to our own culture and commenting on the great differences, although overlooking their importance in the integral functioning of the culture in which we are visiting. The panel members last night provided some excellent examples of communications barriers which arise when we do not assign correct interpretations to signs and symbols.[2] At present the only functioning college contract program in Latin America is the Brazil-Purdue contract. Both the FAO and OAS, organizations which do try to promote home economics in Latin America, are trying to serve large and varied regions. Thus the development of home economics in Latin America must be considered within whatever assets and limitations are provided by a diffuse rather than a concentrated focus.

It is always easier to speak about what one knows well. Therefore, I will try to explain my work so that you can see how it fits into the theme of developing home economics programs in Latin America. I work for the Organization of American States under a contract with AID in the Graduate School of IICA (Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences). Our responsibilities include teaching, research, publications, and consultations in the 21 member countries of the OAS. As Dr. Heft indicated, there are four major languages used in these countries -- Spanish, Portuguese, French and English. The geographic region is large and diverse. The cultures and subcultures are many and varied. As Dr. Quan[3] indicated, women in many of these countries have not recognized their full value as persons and now are becoming aware of their possibilities.

Given this variety of challenges and the multiplicity of responsibilities within IICA, you can imagine the difficulty in determining priorities when you learn that IICA has only four home economists, working by zones to stimulate home economics.[4] In view of the fact that we tried to develop our programs according to the needs and requests of the member countries, you can imagine that our efforts have been dispersed quite thinly at times.

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*Dr. Nelson is associate home economist, Center for Teaching and Research, IICA (Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences), Turrialba, Costa Rica.

[1] See David Heft, "Influences on Latin American Education Affecting International Cooperation in University Curriculum Development," pp. 85-97 of this report.

[2] See section on international communications, pp. 99-130 of this report.

[3] See Graciela Quan Valenzuela, "The Significant Role of Education for the Home in Underdeveloped Countries," pp. 35-42 of this report.

During a recent revision of IICA objectives there was an opportunity to project ideas related to the future role of IICA in the development of home economics in Latin America. This proposal, which included some suggestions about how to coordinate the work of the four home economists, was accepted by the directors. The proposal has been sent to AID in Washington as a supplement to our work plan. Although the AID office has not yet had time to process these papers and react to them, Dr. Katherine Holtzclaw very kindly gave me permission to share some of the content with this group. It is understood that there may be minor alterations in the plan as it is put into effect. What is attempted here is to present some of the clauses of the proposal along with illustrations of how we have been developing some of these ideas in Latin America countries.

Considering the objectives of IICA, it seems that the available resources ought to be dedicated to strengthening the educational institutions which prepare professional home economists. Preference should be given to universities in those countries in which there is at least one home economics program functioning at the university level (Brazil, Chile, Colombia, and Peru at the time of writing). In the other countries, IICA personnel can function in one or more of the following ways, according to the interest of the national personnel: help to initiate a university program and/or help to prepare personnel in non-university level programs within school systems or the extension service. Previously we have been engaged in many short course programs trying to fill gaps of incompletely prepared extension workers. With our own scarcity of personnel, we now think that concentration in the preparation of university level professors will be a wiser use of resources.

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[4] Those interested in obtaining information about home economics personnel and programs in specific Latin American countries should direct inquiries as follows:

For Mexico, Central America, Panama and the Caribbean:
Miss Maria Justina Laboy
IICA Zona Norte
Apartado 1815
Guatemala, Guatemala

For Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Venezuela:
Miss Ana Lauretta Diaz
IICA Zona Andina
Apartado 478
Lima, Peru

For Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay:
IICA Zona Sur, Casilla de Correos 1217, Montevideo, Uruguay

Miss Virginia Lattes, who has been the home economist in Montevideo, will be studying at Michigan State University during the 1965-66 academic year. We have not yet secured her replacement.

There are many possible ways to encourage and accomplish such preparation of university professors. We need to circulate information about scholarships in Puerto Rico, the United States [5], and the South American countries which grant degrees in home economics. It is important that professionals complete a study program instead of taking isolated courses. We need to seek out Latin American university women in whatever branch of study in order to interest them in serving the Latin American university programs in home economics. All too frequently we do not initiate programs because we lack personnel. Home economics in the United States did not begin with women titled in home economics from other countries, but rather with sensitive, educated women from other fields of study.

We can promote intensive education of two types. One is the specialization of persons with an academic base. These persons could take graduate work in one area or a short course program related to the specialty, using the facilities of CINVA, INCAP, and similar institutions.[6] Latin Americans do not admire a specialist in preference to a generalist as much as many North Americans; therefore, it may not be easy to incorporate this idea. Within the rapid changes taking place, it probably is wise to encourage as liberal an education as possible so that the persons will be able to adjust to alterations of objectives and structures of the organizations by which they are employed. Nevertheless, a certain amount of specialization will provide the depth needed to lead certain programs.

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[5] Analyzing personal observations and conversations with Dr. Quan, I would like to make a suggestion to the AHEA Scholarship Committee. Considering the political organization of most Latin American countries, it would be wise to offer the Latin American scholarship through educational institutions or government ministries rather than accepting candidates who do not have assured positions upon return to their countries. It might also be wise to use the contacts of the OAS (Pan American Union, Washington, D.C.) to help in securing recommendations about the applicants. Perhaps some national institutions could share the costs, so that more than one Latin American student could be offered a scholarship each year.

[6] CINVA is the Inter-American Center of Housing and Planning
Apartado Aereo 6209
Bogota, Columbia

INCAP is the Institute of Nutrition for Central America and Panama
Apartado 1188
Guatemala, Guatemala
Central America

Assistance to Local Professors

The second type of intensive education which we have been promoting is consultation of a tutorial type for professors in their home institutions during the academic year while they are developing specific courses. Experience of this type has varied from a few weeks to two or three months of personal contact, followed by regular correspondence. With variations, this idea has been applied by IICA home economists in many of the Latin American countries.

In one situation we were developing courses in home management, human development, and family relations in a two-year program for rural school teachers. The professor was a university level graduate in sociology. The objectives of the course were discussed thoroughly by the local professor and the consultant. In the beginning, the consultant taught some of the classes. Soon the local professor was teaching all the classes and leading the discussions, although the consultant was present as an observer.

Let us cite one example of the working relationship. The local professor inclined more favorably toward human development and family relations than home management. The consultant wished to capitalize on this interest as well as guide her toward an awareness of the interrelations of the fields. It was decided to begin a unit about the use of money and socialization processes which parents use in money matters. The participants in the course were asked to contribute orally ideas about their first personal experiences with money. In a round table discussion each person gave an illustration. Upon analysis the consultant noted that all of the examples referred to their first earning experiences as teachers. The local teacher and the consultant then gave some examples of earlier experiences, for example, the use of a penny bank, Sunday candy money, shopping experiences for gifts or personal clothing. Then the participants were asked to re-think their experiences in terms of their earliest acquaintances with money. From this discussion the group catalogued attitudes toward money and incidents which helped to formulate these attitudes. The group also discussed problems which each member had experienced as a result of lack of practice in spending money.

Meanwhile outside the classroom, the consultant and the local teacher were translating the Household Finance Corporation's bulletin entitled "Children's Spending."[7] The translation was a rough draft to be used only for the purpose of stimulating discussion. When the local professor grasped the essential concepts, she selected the ideas which she thought were applicable to her own culture. She discussed these with the consultant. Then she presented some of the ideas as discussion topics to her group of rural teachers. At the close of the course, the rural teachers developed a pamphlet entitled, "Su Nino y su Dinero" (Your child and his money).[8] This pamphlet was mimeographed, made available by the extension service of the country, and sent to extension personnel in some other Latin American countries as a possible stimulus. This pamphlet is a real adaptation, not a translation. The participants who developed it have never seen the original pamphlet which inspired their professor.

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[7] "Money Management: Children's Spending," Money Management Institute of the Household Finance Corporation, Chicago, 1955.

[8] Prepared by the 1963 Class at ISHA, mimeographed by INTA Extension Agency, Bolivar, Argentina.

Other speakers have mentioned the interest of Africans in role-playing. Many of the Latin Americans enjoy this form of expression also. It has been used to motivate discussions in many places. Role-playing has been especially successful in work simplification efforts. Although time-saving is not a particularly important concept in Latin America, energy saving is. Based on observations made in a Costa Rican community, we have been aware of the systematic patterns of organization which prohibit economic use of the limited energy of the women who are often undernourished and who have large families and little labor-saving equipment.[9] The consultant used illustrations from this study to present the theory of work simplification. Then a group of extension agents were asked to create a dramatization which would capture some aspect of the local homemaker's day in which work simplification principles could be applied. The result was a dramatization of a woman going to market in a community in which the woman first sells her products and then buys what is needed for her own family. The agents based their illustrations on the observations of good and improvable practices which they had observed during their years of service. They employed local terminology. The plan was to present this dramatization with local women playing the roles as a motivation for an extension meeting. After the presentation, the agents hoped that the local homemakers, would be able to indicate the strong and weak points of the woman's form of selling and buying. With this new awareness, the agents hoped to teach principles of work simplification applied to marketing. To date it has not been possible to mimeograph this script, nor is there a report as to the use which might have been made of the idea.

Another variation of the tutorial consultation has helped to prepare teachers of research methods. Professors and extension workers recognize the scarcity of basic information needed by home economists in Latin America, and they wish to help obtain it, although there are few persons with the combined knowledge of research methods and subject matter areas needed to plan and execute research programs. In answer to the demand, the home economist in the southern zone has offered short courses for a duration of five months. These have been attended among others by professors from Chilean universities. Following the five months training period and field work experience in social science research methods, two of these professors have invited the professor as a consultant to help them plan and carry out similar courses in their universities. Since these universities require their students to present an undergraduate thesis as part of the requirements for a degree in home economics, we foresee an improvement in the quality of this work as well as a gradual accumulation of useful information.

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[9] Linda Jean Nelson, "Daily Activity Patterns of Peasant Homemakers," unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Michigan State University, 1963.

Latin American professors can be helped by correspondence following concentrated tutorial contacts and in some cases even when such contacts have not been possible. The Turrialba Center has provided some translations, bibliographies, and photocopies of materials which are useful in home economics courses. We have translations of selected articles from the Journal of Home Economics, Rural Sociology, Scientific American, Journal of Cooperative Extension, Social Forces, and Economic Development and Cultural Change. We have mimeographed a few original papers done by our students. There is a bibliography available entitled, "Sources of Information about How Families Live in Latin America." Other selected bibliographies of Spanish works related to home economics are in preparation.

In order to stimulate student participation in classes rather than the traditional memorization, we also try to provide professors with suggestions for student activities in relation to the courses which they are developing. These may be topics to discuss, observations to be made, reading to be done, or other types of activities. Last night you listened to a portion of a tape on how mothers discipline their children in different cultures. That same tape is being used in Turrialba by students in cultural anthropology. A small group has listened to the tape in English. These students have extracted the basic concepts as they understand them. They have discussed the parallels in Spanish and are developing a script of Spanish illustrations. They hope to experiment with taping this script and present it for commentary to their companions. If this can be perfected, it should be useful not only in anthropology courses, but also in extension, home economics, and other social science courses as a stimulator of discusion.

In a course in educational psychology, the Turrialba students were asked to adapt any test or experiment for possible use by extension agents in Latin America. Working with the local extension agency, one such group developed an idea similar to one reported to us last night with respect to types of drawings accepted by rural people. The local agency hopes to initiate a program of better housing, nutrition, and health care for swine. The students wished to learn what types of drawings or photographs would be understood by the local rural farmers as a guide for making the most effective posters for this campaign. The students photographed a well-made pig pen, a healthy animal, and a sick-one. From these photographs they made drawings in three styles: conventional, modernistic, and humoristic. They asked some farmers who were local extension leaders to select the photographs and drawings which they liked best on a forced-choice basis. Although this was only a test and not a selected sample study, it was soon evident that modernistic and humoristic drawings were not appropriate for this audience. The students experienced this, rather than only reading the results of someone else's research. At the same time the local leaders have some understanding of the objectives of the extension agency personnel and are motivated to help in the campaign.

The final example of methods for helping professors to develop their own Latin American programs is that of stimulating correspondence between professors of similar subject matter in the different countries. This is hindered by the fact that Latin Americans seldom will correspond with an institution. They prefer to write to an individual who is known to them. As the IICA home economists travel from country to country they try to provide personal links between these professors. At present there is some correspondence between extension supervisors, sociology professors, and professors of human development and family relations. Some of these persons have had an opportunity to meet each other after the correspondence was begun.

Role of Turrialba Graduate Center

Now let us turn to some specific ideas of the role of the Turrialba Graduate Center in the development of home economics in Latin America. Since there are relatively few women eligible to enter graduate school the majority of our students are men. Our work in the zones is to concentrate on developing undergraduate programs so that, hopefully in the future, there will be more graduate women students. Meanwhile the graduate school contacts will be mainly males. Of those men in the discipline of economics and social sciences, most have been general agriculture majors as undergraduates with later experience in the extension service. Most will return to positions of leadership as professors, extension supervisors, or higher posts in the ministry of agriculture. in their countries. For the future development of home economis in Latin America it seems essential that these men grasp a concept of the depth and breadth of home economics as well as its importance in the emergence of Latin America.

Earlier in this conference mention was made of the problems encountered in explaining home economics to African men. All home economists have experienced this problem in greater or lesser degree. When we must work with a language which is not our mother tongue, the problems are increased. One solution seemed to be the development of an illustration which would indicate the interrelatedness of the home economics areas. The illustration which I am going to present originated in necessity and has been presented in at least nine Latin American countries to both men and women of many different educational levels. It has been adapted by students in the orientation course in one of new university programs to explain home economics to their parents. It has been used by extensionists with new agents, with government ministers, and with homemakers as a guide in program selection. It has been used in the graduate school mainly with male extension personnel. This is the first time that the idea has been presented in English and to a group of professional home economists. We shall welcome your comments and criticisms of this means of explaining what home economis is.

The central idea is a comparison of home economics to a house. Of course the picture which one has of a house varies by culture, but clever teachers can adapt the idea to the local concept of a house. First a simple house is constructed with plastic blocks. It consists of a floor, four walls, a ceiling, and a roof. This structure is knocked down with one movement of the hand. It is pointed out that while all the elements remain, the pile hardly represents a house.

The second phase of the illustrated talk consists of reconstructing the house more slowly with appropriate parallels in home economics. The house of home economics begins with a floor which represents an amalgamation of all the sciences (both biological and social), arts, and humanities which form the base upon which home economics draws to apply knowledge to the development of the family. The bricks which form each of the four walls represent knowledge, skills, and attitudes in foods and nutrition, housing, clothing, and human development. Comments are made with respect to the relationships between the touching walls as illustrated in the column of bricks which two walls have in common. The ceiling represents home management, which provides a means to relate the knowledge, skills, and attitudes which form all four of the walls, thus expanding their interrelation and highlighting the need for decision-making by families. The roof represents family relationships,, the dynamic, human factor which influences the types of management and the use of the resources available. Since the types of family relationships vary in the Latin American countries, this provides a way to illustrate how the different forms of family organization are related to all of home economics.

In the end, the entire structure is again broken. The final comment is that the elements are all present, but without organization and sense of relationship, a balanced, integrated home economics program cannot be built, just as a house cannot be built without the expected relationship of the construction elements, each in a proper placement.

Recognizing tne need for some means to unite all the IICA efforts in developing home economics within Latin America and given the diverse responsibilities with which the home economists are charged, the central focus selected is the family in Latin America. There is a course in the graduate school entitled "The Family in Latin America." This is offered to all the students in economics and social science. From ideas presented in this course we hope that some students will select their thesis topics. It would be especially useful if pairs of students could interview husbands and wives simultaneously about certain aspects of family life. Currently one husband and wife team is preparing a report of a study of this type which was carried out in Mexico. As was mentioned previously, the Latin American universities require the writing of an undergraduate thesis to complete the requirements for a degree. Currently the IICA home economists are trying to advise students on a wide variety of topics. It is hoped that we will be able to align some of the interests so that by providing bibliographies and some sample questionnaires we will be able to curb the dispersion and obtain comparative data from various countries as well as being able to orient more students with our current limited group of professionals.

The students in the graduate course reviewed the literature and formulated a list of 27 Spanish and Portuguese definitions of the family. We are still trying to develop a truly Latin American definition of the concept which will incorporate the variations which we have discussed. One motivating technique which was successful in the course and which might serve as a means of rapidly gathering useful information in other developing university programs was the use of incomplete sentences. On the first day of class before explaining the objectives and outline of the course, the students were asked to respond to 55 incomplete sentences related to various themes which would be included in the course.

For example:

The family in my country ....
The rich family ....
The average family ....
The rural family ....
Parents ought to ....
The family hopes to ....

The responses were compiled and presented to the class as an introduction to each of the topics. It was easy for each student to evaluate his original reaction to the major concepts presented in the course.

It is hoped that as this course is given again, the IICA home economists can write a manual for teaching the course. Such a manual would indicate possible objectives, course organization, student activities, sources of information and educational aids, and many possible ideas for evaluating the learning. The manual envisioned could be useful at the university level, the secondary level, and in extension wherever people have a need to learn more about families in Latin America. The manual could also serve as an example of a type of guide which could be developed by leaders in other subject matter areas to help their professors.

These brief glimpses into selected phases of the work of the IICA home economists economists in trying to help the developing home economics programs in Latin America have been chosen to try to illustrate many of the excellent principles of communication, values, and other key concepts which the previous speakers have highlighted.

ANNOUNCEMENT

At the closing session Dr. Nelson issued the following invitation:

To all who have students from Latin American countries or who expect to be involved in contracts with Latin American universities, I would like to issue an invitation to:

1. Visit us in Turrialba to learn about Latin America and what is going on there in educational and research programs. You might use our library and our language laboratory. Perhaps you could study during one term. I would recommend participation in our course on "The Family in Latin America," which will probably be offered during spring term, 1966. If you are not directly involved you might suggest such a visit to AID/college contract personnel in your university.

2. Send Latin American students to us before they come to the United States as well as one their way home so as to aid them in the transition.

3. Write to us for information such as bibliographies, Spanish teaching materials, and possible contacts in the countries of your interest. Please try to identify your problems so as to ask specific questions rather than "please send everything we need to know about Latin America!"

HOME ECONOMICS IN AFRICAN COUNTRIES

by Flemmie Kittrell*

Historically speaking the continent of Africa has not yet been hospitable to the field of home economics in university circles and higher education. The European background - France, England, Belgium -- reflects itself throughout the African continent. A further handicap shows itself in the rigid continuation of domestic science and domestic arts prepared in Europe prior to independence and still adhered to by most of the newly independent countries. When I tried to encourage some new approach in the Congo, I met with stiff resistance -- "If this domestic science and domestic arts selection was good enough for the Belgians, it is good enough for us." But fortunately, this is not the whole story, though a large part of it. Nigeria is the exception. Let us look to see what is happening in this exciting and forward looking country.

Home Economics at the University of Nigeria

Nigeria, from my observation of education on the African continent, is unique in many ways. Its special uniqueness is its great love for education. It was on this note that Dr. Azikiwe, the governor general, was swept into office at the first election. Since independence in 1960, five new universities have come into being. They were designed to give adequate opportunity to any student who could profit from advanced study along the line of his choice. This philosophy is a complete break with Nigeria's past. Prior to independence from Britain, higher education dealt primarily in the areas of liberal arts as a background for medicine, theology, and other professions.

The European pattern, and its over-all philosophy of education, were closely adhered to . The new universities, on the other hand, are diversified. In the words of the first chancellor, "Nigeria needed diversity in higher education for excellence, breadth as well as depth; for the applied, the practical, and the vocational as well as the asthetic, the historical, and the cultural." In securing this type of university, ideas were secured from Europe, the USA, and from Nigeria itself.

In his address delivered before the inaugural convocation of the University of Nigeria on October 13, 1960, His Excellency, The Right Honourable Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe, P.C., Governor-General and Commander-in-Chief of the Federation of Nigeria, and Chancellor of the University of Nigeria, said:

> ...We cannot afford to continue to produce or to encourage the continued production of an upper class of parasites who shall prey upon a stagnant and sterile class of workers and peasants... To stem this inevitability,

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> the University of Nigeria at Nsukka has been founded as a leveling agent to discourage social stratification and to reduce unemployability to the barest minimum... By creating equal opportunity for those who have the intellectual aptitude without any social distinctions, we hope to build a new society in Africa. This calls for a realistic approach to the problems of higher learning in our system of education. We must frankly admit that we can no longer afford to flood only the white collar jobs at the expense of the basic occupations and productive vocations, which can be so intelligently directed to create wealth, health, and happiness among the greatest number of our people, particularly in the fields agriculture, engineering, business administration, education, and home economics.

Reporting on his views of the university, Dr. George M. Johnson, formerly the dean of the Law School at Howard University and now on the international team at Michigan State University working with the University of Nigeria, had this to say:

> As I see it, the University of Nigeria established objectives which would cause it to be different from other universities in West Africa in three essential ways. First, the primary focus of the University is on the needs of Nigeria as a new nation. This is the primary concern which permeates all aspects of the curriculum, the research program, and the off-campus educational services of the institute.
>
> Second, the university is chartered to provide more education to more people. This is a necessity if the great mass of Nigerian people are to prepare themselves for responsible citizenship in a democracy.
>
> And third, there is an obligation to provide as many different and varied branches of learning as can be adequately encompassed under the university umbrella. Here the basic philosophy is that any pursuit by means of which men or women earn their daily bread and contribute to society is worthy of scientific research at the highest levels, and the knowledge which results from this scholarship, should be offered to all those who can benefit from it....

This above background here was needed in order to understand that the soil had been prepared favorably for home economics in higher education and that it was born in a congenial atmosphere.

Dr. Madelene Kirkland, former head of the Department of Home Economics at Howard University, was chairman of the school and spent four years developing the program. The first class was graduated in 1965 with B.S. degrees. The College of Home Economics is in the Faculty of Technology. Also other colleges under this faculty are the Colleges of Fine Arts, Engineering, Music, Physical Education, and Secretarial Studies.

The College of Home Economics encompasses the areas of humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences. All first year students in the university enroll in the College of General Studies. Through the remaining years on campus, home economics students will take fewer and fewer courses offered through this general college, and an increasing proportion of their work will be in the College of Home Economics.

The home economics curriculum offerings are as follows: foods and nutrition, bio-chemistry, and bacteriology; clothing and textiles; child development; nursery school education; home economics extension; consumer economics; art and family health.

In three years time, after its founding in 1960, the university had transformed an erstwhile uninhabited farm land into a cosmopolitan settlement in which are represented nearly all of the geographical regions of the world and many nationalities including Nigerians, Americans, Indians, Chinese, Germans, English, French, and Swiss, to mention only a few represented on the faculties, in the student body, and on the administrative staff.

By 1963 there were no less than 200 large and small residential buildings, and academic faculty of nearly 200, and a student population of some 1200 (including 89 women.)

Home Economics in Kenya

Kenya has had many good schools at both the secondary and the college level, but there is, even now, only a diploma course in home economics. However, the present government and responsible school officials are considering increasing both the quantity and the efficiency of the program to a four year degree.

The diploma course is affiliated with the University of Manchester in England and examinations are prepared in England for graduation requirements. This custom of preparing examinations by outsiders has proved to be difficult and much of the work is based on theory.

When examining the course of study and when visiting the College of Nairobi, it was found that the technical work was of a very high standard, and the equipment and arrangement of rooms were adequate. The curriculum emphasized dressmaking, cookery, budgeting, laundry, sewing, and housewifery. There is a staff of five European teachers. With the return of graduates from various colleges in the USA, the interests will no doubt shift to subject matter dealing with nutrition, child development, parent education, consumer problems, and the like.

A partial list of the students who have come to the USA to study home economics is listed below, along with the colleges they attended:

Degrees earned since 1962

Edith Gitea	B.S. degree, home economics general, University of California

Monica Mondara	B.S. degree, home economics general, San Francisco State College
Grace Mugone	B.S. degree, nutrition, Howard University
Magdalena Muya	B.S. degree, home economics vocational ed., Indiana State College; M.S. degree in 1965 -Howard University
Patricia Ododa	B.S. degree, child development, Howard University
Julia Tuva	B.S. degree, home economics general,University of Nebraska
Elizabeth Wanara	B.S. degree,home economics general, 2 yrs. in Royal College and 2 yrs. at Colorado State University
Grace Wagema	B.S. degree, home economics general, Howard University
Catherine Wangoi	B.S. degree, nutrition, 2 yrs. in the Royal College and 2 yrs. in University of Oregon
Miriam Wanjuro	B.S. degree, nutrition, St. Mary-of-the Woods

In addition to the Kenya students who have been graduated in home economics in U.S. colleges, other students from Kenya have taken special home economics workshops during the summer months. Many of these students were not home economics majors but have become interested in home economics and have changed their majors upon taking the special workshop courses in such colleges as Howard University, Ohio University, and the University of Pittsburgh. These institutes have been sponsored by the African Women's Committee of the African American Institute Headquarters, 345 E. 46th St., New York, N.Y.

The Congo Program

In September 1960, only three months after the Congo won its independence, the Women's Division of the Methodist Church, USA, was actively working on a program for higher education of women. This plan was to include a Faculty of Home Economics (College.) The sudden concern for higher education on the part of the women of the Methodist Church, was due, in part, to their conviction that leadership in the country would have to stem from liberal education, which included the arts, sciences, and the humanities at the core. It was difficult to find eligible women to pursue education at the university level. However, the concept of what was needed was established. As a prerequisite to the university program, a secondary school for girls at Leopoldville was established to prepare them for university entrance. The secondary school is of a six year duration and is built around the European academic pattern. The first class of 38 girls will be graduated in 1966.

When the Congo received its independence there were no women in the country who had received an academic degree. Indeed, it was difficult to find either men or women who had completed the equivalent of a secondary school education.

Home Economics and Universities

There are three universities in the Congo located as follows: the University at Leopoldville, containing the College of Medicine, the College of Pharmacy, the School of Nursing, the College of Arts and Sciences, and the School of Theology; the University at Stanleyville, of a semi-technical nature; and the University at Elizabethville, offering engineering technology. The Faculty of Home Economics is to be located at Stanleyville.

Organization and Scope of Congo Program

There will be a central school of home economics with a dean at its head. This school will serve as an educational center for young women with superior secondary (high school) standing and who will upon graduation from college, receive a bachelor's degree. The number of girls in this category is small at present, but with more emphasis being placed on formal education for them, this number will increase rapidly. The young women who come from various parts of the Congo to attend the school of home economics will serve as teachers and leaders in various areas of education. Some of these areas will include the following:

1. Promoting nutrition programs and dietetics in the country as a whole through public health
2. Teaching home economics at all levels in the primary and secondary schools and college programs
3. Conducting research in family living
4. Directing extension programs in home economics
5. Promoting social welfare and community development programs

Organization. The organization of the school and building plans are under the leadership of a dean of home economics. Included in the course of study are the following subject matter areas:

1. General Cultural Courses
    a. Anthropology
    b. World and African history
    c. Art and music
    d. African, European, and Asian languages

2. Specific Home Economics Subject Matter
    - a. Foods and nutrition, diet therapy
    - b. Child development and nursery education
    - c. Home and institution management
    - d. Family health and hygiene
    - e. Family clothing
    - f. Consumer education
    - g. Management in family living -- (1) human resources, (2) materials, and (3) natural resources.

3. Supporting Courses
    - a. Bacteriology
    - b. Physiology
    - c. General chemistry and bio-chemistry
    - d. Education and sychology
    - e. Sociology and extension methods

Personnel. In the beginning there will be five teachers including the dean. This number is needed to deal with the home economics subject matter that will be immediately required as presented above. It is expected that each teacher will be able to deal adequately with at least two related areas in home economics. More teachers will be needed as the four years emerge.

In addition to the teachers listed above, there should be two women as general assistants, a secretary, and a full time janitor.

Location. It has been considered desirable to locate the school of home economics on a campus where there are sufficient and scientific instructors available to handle the general cultural courses and the supporting courses. Stanleyville has been selected for the location of the school.

Currently there are two women in the USA from the Congo studying home economics. One of these, Mrs. Eunice Kasono, is studying at Howard University and hopes to obtain her B.S. degree in June 1966. She is studying on a full time scholarship provided through the Methodist Church.

Home Economics in Rhodesia, Liberia

No home economics is available at the college or university level in Rhodesia. However, at the University of Rhodesia in Salisbury, a Department of Agriculture is being considered that leads to the B.S. degree. With some probing, home economics could enter also.

In Liberia there is not much home economics taught in secondary schools and no work offered at the college and university level.

Status of Women in Newly-Independent Countries

African women are speaking out for themselves and their families. Thus there has been a great deal of up-grading of the position of African women since the end of colonial rule. This fact can be accounted for by several obvious factors. The first is that women have been speaking out for themselves and have sought assistance from many sources. Among these sources are their own government, non-governmental women's organizations, International womens organizations, (YWCA, International Association of University Women, the Committee of Correspondence,) and agencies of the United Nations.

These words from the preamble of the United Nations Charter --

> We the peoples of the United Nations,
> determined.....to reaffirm faith in fundamental
> human rights, in the dignity, and worth of the human person,
> in the equal rights of men and women....

have served as a powerful stimulus for women in the newly independent countries.

In time the Status of Women Commission, under the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations, may prove to be just the agency needed today to help the African Woman, and indeed all women, to help themselves. The Status of Women Commission feels that its first concern in working with any group of women should be given to equal political rights. It has considered that the possession of political rights is fundamental to the improvement of the status of women in all fields. With political rights one can participate in government and can help to draft legislation that will improve women's condition as needed.

Women hold cabinet posts and other high government offices in the following countries: (partial list) Nigeria, Ghana, Guinea, Liberia, Kenya. Measures dealing with health, marriage laws, brides' price, education at all levels, and other social needs are dealt with more forthrightly by women in Africa now than in the immediate past.

For the most part heads of states in the newly independent countries are actively seeking advice from women as to the needs of education and social welfare. Many of these countries have a cabinet post headed by a woman to deal with women affairs. Guinea, a state in West Africa, has from the beginning, provided leadership in this area. In outlining the policy and principles in 1959 of the Guinea Democratic Party, President Toure gave a large section of his address to the emancipation of women. There is at present great opportunities for the development of Home Economics in the newly independent countries of Africa. We in the USA can share if we know how to communicate with a bold approach.

DEVELOPMENT OF GRADUATE PROGRAMS FOR THE INTERNATIONAL STUDENT IN THE UNITED STATES

by Wesley F. Buchele*

Both agricultural engineering and home economics deal with biological material. My specific job is to mechanize the farm and the farmstead; two of your many important jobs are to sanitize the home and feed the family the food my machinery harvests.

The development of a meaningful graduate program for the international student is an important and challenging task for the major professor. It requires deep insight and understanding of the needs of the student and his country. If the program is trivial, the student is not only robbed of his training but, worse yet, allowed to establish a false set of values concerning the responsibilities of the intelligent person.

If his training here does not fit him so he can make a contribution toward helping his country when he returns, he may take a non-productive job and become frustrated because he feels that his knowledge and training are not being used and appreciated. He then returns to the United States, leaving the country worse than it was before. His country has lost not only time and money, but an intelligent individual which it can ill afford to lose. True, it is a gain for our economy, but it is a tragic loss of major proportions to the student's native country.

Dr. J. Boyd Page, vice president for research and dean of the Graduate College at Iowa State University, says, "We need to instill into the graduate student the basic principles of research so that he can go back and creatively adapt his newfound knowledge to improve the conditions of his native country."

The objective of graduate training should be to maximize the individual's ability to solve problems that he will probably meet when he returns. Such problems are usually beyond the scope of people who have not had advanced training.

The academic courses should be selected to provide a background of all organized knowledge in his area of interest as well as to provide him with the mathematical and statistical tools to competently attack the research problem and analyze the data.

How does the program for a student from an underdeveloped country differ from that of an affluent country?

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*Dr. Buchele is professor of agricultural engineering at Iowa State University.

It differs in two ways:

First, the undergraduate education is usually considerably different. To be specific, in agricultural engineering we receive foreign students trained in agriculture or trained in traditional engineering courses.

I imagine that few foreign students arrive for graduate study in the United States who have been trained specifically in home economics.

If our students have an agricultural background, they will have missed a good portion of the fundamental engineering education; that is, courses in thermodynamics, engineering mechanics, mathematics, and machine design. Students are required to take these courses before they can proceed to advanced engineering courses.

On the other hand, if students come up through the engineering program, they will have a strong background in the classical engineering subjects but will probably not have had much laboratory experience in engineering subjects because of the high cost of the equipment. Here, too, they will lack the training for translating ideas into practical machines through machine design.

To remedy this, our students are exposed while on campus to a number of laboratory courses in engineering and agriculture as well as machinery manufacturing courses.

Secondly, the problems the students from the underdeveloped countries will meet are considerably different. The four most obvious differences are as follows:

a. Most underdeveloped countries are in the tropical zone.

b. Engineers are scarce; therefore, they must be capable of solving a wide range of problems.

c. Farms are smaller and energy sources different.

d. The economy is socialistic rather than capitalistic.

Since most of the underdeveloped countries are in the tropical zone, solutions that have been developed for the temperate zone do not necessarily fit the tropics. For instance, land is plowed dry in the U.S. and wet in the Philippines.

The trained engineers or home economists of the underdeveloped country need to be capable of solving problems to improve conditions over a wide range of subjects. They are expected to provide "off-the-cuff" answers to a variety of questions. It may not be possible to "refer them to the proper authority" because it may be a long way to the specialist.

The equipment needs are different because the average size of farms is approximately five acres and the energy sources are human and animal. Because many countries are developing under socialist economies, the practicing engineer will need to be especially conscious of the economics of manufacturing, value engineering, and cost accounting. This is because, in a protective situation, there is little competition or sales feed-back which would indicate an uneconomical design or distribution system as there is in our competitive, capitalistic society.

Thus we note that the technology of these countries requires the services of the general engineer or home economist rather than that of the specialist.

For example several years ago, I sat in on the master's oral examination of a student from India. He had done good work on the effect of the shape of the steel moldboard plow and the force required to pull the plow through the soil. He was asked what good this research would do him in his own country. For a moment he was dumbfounded. Then he replied, "We don't even have moldboard plows. We use a country plow, a pointed wooden stick with a steel tip." His reply left me wondering if his training had prepared him for his threefold task, which is to (1) develop the specifications, (2) design, and (3) manufacture the plow.

Some of you may be wondering if we might be conducting second rate programs for students from underdeveloped countries. We emphatically are not!

Because of the differences in education and the problems between the affluent countries and the underdeveloped countries, we emphasize plant physiology, soil physics, economics, machine design and fabrication courses rather than the final series of the theoretical courses in mathematics, statistics, and applied mechanics. We feel that these courses can be taken later if the student needs them.

Educating the Major Professor

We have said that the student must learn the basic principles so he can apply his new-found knowledge in his native country. How can this best be accomplished?

The major professor needs to know the student and his country before he can help him plan a program of study. The weekly conferences won't do the job. Because of the language and cultural barriers, the major professor does not realize that the foreign student does not understand, and vice versa.

The major professor could best become acquainted with the graduate student's country and its people by traveling and studying in the country. I think that six weeks would give him enough time to observe the major problems facing the nation. The country or foundation supporting the student should assume the obligation of giving the professor this opportunity. (His travel expenses would probably be about equal to the salary he receives from his university.) The cost of educating the major professor is small compared to the support of one or more graduate students.

With proper arrangements, the professor could visit two or more countries during a summer. At this time, he could interview potential graduate students as well as the political, educational, and industrial leaders of the country to determine what problems need to be solved.

I learned more about the problems of Ethiopia in a three-day visit than about Surinam in two years of weekly conferences with the Surinamian student. These visits would help break down the barriers in communication, and the professor would develop a profound personal interest in the country.

In addition to Ethiopia, I have visited India, Ireland, England, and the Philippines prior to having graduate students from these countries. My visits were much shorter than six weeks, but the insight I received has been extremely valuable.

For instance, I learned that the seedbed prepared by the Ethiopian farmer doesn't allow a good stand of teff, their main grain crop, to emerge. The seedbed is rough because the Ethiopian farmer has neither the equipment nor time to make it better. I know that the dry soils of India require six to eight plowings by the "country" plow -- the pointed stick with the steel tip..

Probably some of you are recalling similar experiences in the home economics area which would provide a basis for developing a research program.

The university personnel participating in the contract programs of AID, in Fullbright lectureships and similar programs are gaining excellent experiences in identifying problems in foreign lands. Under the Iowa State University contract with Peru, professors of economics, living in Peru guide graduate students who have completed their course work at Iowa State and have returned to Peru to do their research.

The Research Problem

We've said that we need to train the student to apply his knowledge and to educate the major professor to help the student identify the problems of his country.

From the problems existing in the country should come the research problem. The selection of the research problem is important because the concentrated study in the selected area will lead him to the frontier of knowledge. It should make him one of the world's authorities on the subject and provide the momentum that will carry him forward in his laboratory for the next 10 to 15 years.

A Danish graduate student of mine worked on the drying rate of conditioned hay for his master's problem. When I visited him last year in Denmark, he showed me his hay drying laboratory and five years of data on the efficiency of hay harvesting systems.

If the student goes into teaching and becomes a major professor, the problem selected may also seriously influence the areas in which his own graduate students study.

Research may be divided into three types as follows:

1. Basic research, which includes pure research.
2. Applied research, which includes development research.
3. Consumer research.

Basic research is thinking or experimentation aimed primarily at the extension of the boundaries of human knowledge. Since it cannot immediately influence the economy of the country, it should be conducted primarily by graduate students from affluent countries.

Applied research is the application of known knowledge to the solution of existing problems. More money is spent on applied research in the United States than on all other types of research.

Consumer research determines how successfully the problems have been solved. Mailed and personal interview surveys determine how well equipment and services are accepted by the people. The behavioral scientist spends considerable time conducting this type of research. Simply stated, consumer research determines how well applied research solved the problems by using basic research information.

Basic information is normally originated by the scientist conducting basic research. He seems to be doing a good job. In fact, Eric A. Walker, president of Pennsylvania State University, in a recent Sweeny Memorial Lecture at Iowa State University stated that, "Today, the scientist is filling the world with an abundance of new knowledge at a fantastic rate." Dr. C. Zenor of the Westinghouse Research Laboratories, has reported that, "The scientific and technical knowledge of the world doubled during the past 12 years and it is estimated it will double again by 1969." Let me repeat, the knowledge gained in the next five years will be equal to that gained by all previous generations, including the present one. This knowledge is printed in scientific journals and books that have inundated our libraries.

Because the accumulation of knowledge seems to be in such good hands, I believe the graduate student from the undeveloped country should conduct applied research on a problem that is meaningful to him and is useful to improve the health or the economy of his country.

Should he wish to do basic research when he returns home, he will find the transition from applied to basic much easier than from basic to applied. While doing the applied research, he will observe many phenomena that cry for an explanation. It is interesting to note that General Electric and Bell Telephone laboratories, our largest commercial research laboratories, both started out conducting applied research.

Selecting the Problem

When the international student arrives on campus, I assign him a reading list of recent Iowa State University theses based on what I think will fit his needs. These theses reflect our current research thinking and give the student an idea of what has been done and what a thesis actually is.

In conference, we discuss his area of interest and the problems facing his country. This is easier to accomplish if I have visited his country, as I previously noted.

It is my experience that the student will work hardest and will be most creative in an area in which he has a strong interest.

After a number of conferences, we mutually agree on a problem that has a chance of being solved within the time, space, and facilities available. It is hoped, of course, that the information gained will be of some value to Iowa, but this is not a necessary prerequisite for the outside supported student.

If a problem within his country cannot be identified or he wants to work in a fundamental area, he is encouraged to work on some component of the soil-plant-man-machine complex. Since some of our foreign students are born in large cities and educated in engineering, they are unable to identify the problems of agriculture.

If the student selects a fundamental area, he must seek ingenious ways to build and use simple instruments and equipment for his experiments. These are made from easily purchased or fabricated parts. It would be an injustice, I believe, to train him on the use of little used, expensive instruments that his native resources would never be able to provide.

During the past nine years, five of my graduate students have studied the pressure that the planter wheels exert on the soil and the effect of such pressure on the germination, growth, and emergence of plants. One student was from Egypt and another from West Pakistan. Each student constructed new instruments from standard parts and made a contribution to the understanding of the relationship of soil physical conditions and plant emergence.

The understanding these students got from learning how pressing the soil over the seeds affects plants coming up is just as applicable to the Egyptian engineer studying cotton planters in the Nile delta as the American engineer studying corn planters in Iowa.

Our machine design projects provide a lucrative training ground for agricultural engineers. Our student selects an operation in plant or animal production that is being done by hand. It is then a test of his observation abilities, deductive and inductive reasoning, and creative powers to invent a mechanism that will carry out the hand operation. Once the hand process is mechanized,it is a test of his design, construction, and development abilities to create a field-worthy, economical machine.

The designer makes many hypotheses about his mechanized process and his machine during the design and development stage. Some of these hypotheses are tested when the machine is run empty in the shop and others are tested when the machine is operated in the field.

I remember during the recent field tests of our strawberry harvester, my Ethiopian student became fascinated by the daily improvements that we were able to make in the operation of the machine. In one season we were able to progress from stoppages due to break-down or clogging every two feet to picking an entire row without stopping.

During the creation and development of a machine, information similar to that gained by basic research is recorded about the material being handled in the mechanized system.

For example when we were working on a cucumber harvester, we gained basic information when we measured the force required to pull the vines out of the ground as well as the force required to pick the cucumber. We also determined the length-diameter ratio of cucumbers and wrote equations expressing this relation. Thus the student gained experience in basic as well as applied research.

The desire to do basic research is strong. A great deal of status is attached to doing something new. I recall that in one institute I visited in India, one of the projects of the research program was the development of new metering systems for seed. New metering devices for seed have been under design and development for more than 150 years in the United States and Europe. The desire to do original work should have been shifted from research in metering systems to selection of materials,the redesign, for local manufacture, of already known systems.

Another institute was studying a new system for threshing rice because the cylinder and concave of the threshing machine broke the straw up so much it could not be used for manufacturing hats, purses, and sandals. This was a real problem, but the approach to the solution should have been to study the harvesting method to determine if the major portion of the straw could not have been saved at the time the grain was cut rather than at threshing time. Of course, new principles of threshing rice will be discovered, but they will probably be expensive in time and money to develop. The sale price of the new harvester may be higher than that of the conventional machine.

Both in seed planting and rice threshing, India can ill afford to use the time, money,and facilities to develop the new systems.

On the other hand it is valid to conduct research on the use of native materials and craftsmanship in the construction of new devices or structures. One American engineer working in Ethiopia observed that native carpenters were familiar with the handling and installation of steel corrugated roofing. He designed a rodent-proof round grain storage bin using corrugated sheet metal that is now being constructed with native labor.

Just as the American technology of the 19th century was developed on information from Europe, the 20th century technology of the undeveloped countries will be developed on basic information from the affluent countries.

Conducting the Graduate Program

The concept of the graduate college grew out of the German tradition in which the thesis was an original contribution to knowledge in a basic science. In some areas the graduate student cannot sufficiently master the field in two or three years to the point that he can make a contribution to knowledge. Thus this requirement has been modified in the United States so that the program provides training in research techniques and procedures and the opportunity for experiences in the creative process.

Since the foreign student may have developed strong opinions at his undergraduate university concerning the traditional view, the major professor may have to explain the need to solve existing problems by applying basic research. His job is not to develop new knowledge during his graduate program, but to develop new ways of applying already known knowledge to problems of his country.

Solving existing problems can develop mental tools and techniques and associated skills to do research which will enable the foreign student to contribute to his country when he returns. He will gain status from the contributions he makes.

He has the same opportunity in applied as in basic research to form his hypotheses, search the literature, organize research, have a creative experience, conduct experiment, perform statistical analysis, write report and, yes, to "stick his neck out," that he has in basic research. The research program may be his first and last chance to be creative.

Creative thinking is needed to solve the vastly different problems of the undeveloped countries. The student should be encouraged to think creatively, not just memorize meaningless facts and figures. Of course, the major professor must first be versed in the creative process. Allowing the student to be creative isn't the easiest way to get research done, but one must always keep in mind that the important product is the student and his training.

The professor should set the stage for a creative experience. It's an awful temptation to blurt out the answer to a problem when you know it and you also know that the student won't conceive of the answer for at least another half hour or more. But he must be allowed to think for himself. Getting an idea is like getting olives out of a jar. The first one is the hardest, but when it is shaken loose the rest roll right out.

Each year, I give five lectures on creativity and patents to my undergraduate and graduate classes. I am interested in my students knowing the steps in the creative process -- how to conceive the idea, what to do with the idea, and how to protect the idea. I get as much benefit from it as the students do. I need to be reminded of the steps leading to a creative encounter with the unknown and to be a good listener.

The major professor has the obligation of leading the graduate student to the frontier of knowledge in his area of interest. He should be currently aware of recent unpublished research articles and should personally know the research workers in his field throughout the world. He should direct his graduate students to correspond with them so he can become acquainted with them and learn about their latest work.

The literature survey brings the student to the frontier of knowledge in his area and gives him practice in information retrieval. We apply the following three tests to determine if he has actually reached the frontier of knowledge.

1. A canvass of current professional research workers turns up no new literature.
2. Recent articles, bibliographies, and abstracts contain no new articles or citations of new articles.
3. The hypothesis advanced by the student or his advisor remains unexplained or unexplored by the literature survey.

After the literature survey comes the actual experiment or testing of the hypothesis.

To gain experience in working with his hands, each of our international graduate students constructs an instrument or machine and conducts tests with the device. I make it a point to be there when he runs his first test. He needs lots of encouragement at this point; otherwise, when the device fails to perform as he thinks it should, he will quit. My trouble shooting gives him the help he needs to understand the actual function of the device, and to improve it until it works.

Observations in Home Economics

Just as mechanization has been one of the vehicles of graduate training in my field, so sanitation, nutrition, environment, behavior, economics and etc., are your vehicles. When rural America was electrified during the 1930's, the home economist used the advantages of electricity as a vehicle to advance the home 20 to 30 years almost instantaneously. They used it to teach better diet through preparation of food, refrigerated storage and the electric stove, and better care of the home with the electric sweeper.

The Unva-Ram adobe brick machine appears to be a device that can be used as the vehicle for improving the rural family life and home of the undeveloped countries.

In like manner, the changing of the type of power used on the farm can have a profound effect on the family. Professor of G. Wallace Giles, consultant in agricultural engineering to the Ford Foundation concerning India, had this in mind when he reported to a recent meeting of the American Society of Agricultural Engineers:

> The agricultural operations now used in most of the undeveloped countries were developed using animal and human power many centuries ago, and have remained practically unchanged to the present day. These operations need to be evaluated in the light of a new type of power -- mechanical power.
>
> The lack of power is one of the most fundamental problems facing these countries in agriculture. More power is essential in carrying out operations effectively and at the right time. More power is a catalyst for changing the attitudes and uplifting the social status and dignity of those who labor in agriculture. Farmers who have at their command mechanical power raise their sights to new horizons. It provides for an open and a more dynamic and exciting profession. And lastly, more power provides the opportunity for using a whole new array of modern implements. Implements that perform their function better and quicker invariably require more power per hour or per acre.

I have observed that the job of the home economist in underdeveloped countries can be compared to the work of the extension worker in the U.S. during the "roaring twenties." Back in that era the home economist was concerned with child care, nutrition, and clothing in the home rather than the problems of today's industrial home economist. More home economists of today are working in industry and have made rapid strides in prepared frozen and dried foods. The housewife of today can serve better meals to her family in less time than her grandmother because of the "built-in maid service."

This brings me to my point that every culture exists in a time relation with other cultures. The problems of the Australian and Argentina livestock rancher today are similar to those of our west during the 1880's. As I travel, I see situations that appear like the rerun of an old movie on the late TV show. It is our hope for everyone that the experiences of advanced cultures will render the solutions less costly and painful the second time.

While I was traveling in other lands I made a few observations that raised questions in my mind:

Such as, why is the chicken an important meat source in warm climates? Could it be because it is "meal size" and can be kept alive until it is needed for a particular meal and then consumed by the average family.

Why are foods served highly seasoned in warm climates? Were hot seasonings originally used to retard spoilage or mask putrid odors and flavor in the food associated with decay?

How does this affect the food value? When refrigeration becomes available are the hot seasonings justified or just habit? What is the effect of the spice on the children? How does it influence their eating habits? Do they eat solids as soon?

The tropical countries can grow vegetables the year around. Why, then, do they only grow them in the off season when they can't grow rice? Should not the need for a year around supply of vegetables be stressed?

There are many more questions in my mind, and it's fun to speculate on the answers. Maybe some of you know the answers. I don't, but it would be interesting to find out.

In summary, the training of a creative graduate student is more important than the research that he may do. The research problem is the means for creative training.

The role of the major professor is many fold if his students are to be productive. He must foresee their needs and the needs of their country. It is then an easy matter to guide them so they will have a rendezvous with greatness in their pursuit of excellence.

PANEL: DEVELOPING A RESEARCH AND GRADUATE PROGRAM IN HOME ECONOMICS ABROAD

(This panel was presented by staff members of Iowa State University. The panelists were: Dr. Helen R. LeBaron, dean of the College of Home Economics and panel leader; Dr. Wilma D. Brewer, head, Department of Food and Nutrition; Dr. Glenn R. Hawkes, head, Department of Child Development; Dr. Margaret I. Liston, head, Department of Home Management; Dr. Marguerite Scruggs, head, Department of Home Economics Education; and Dr. Margaret C. Warning, head, Department of Textiles and Clothing.)

Dean Helen R. LeBaron: Our principal role as home economists working in other countries is to make our assistance dispensable. We must find ways to help their home economists to become self-sufficient:

1. They must be able to develop programs at the university level to prepare their own home economics personnel. This means graduate education.

2. They must be able to develop their own teaching materials. Much of our material is not appropriate for use in other countries.

These are compelling reasons for focusing our efforts on helping others develop graduate and research programs as rapidly as possible.

Our experience at ISU is limited to one country, India. The work in which we are engaged is made possible by that previously done by the University of Tennessee as well as the efforts of the various church missions. The task requires patience, both on our part and on the part of the people of the country itself. Graduate programs are often started before sound undergraduate programs have been developed.

What are the special considerations involved in initiating a graduate program in home economics in a foreign university? A major consideration is that it fit in with the goals of the nation concerned. Before undertaking the program in Baroda, India, we talked with people in government and in various governmental agencies. The University Grants Commission found that during the ensuing five years some 700 persons with M.S. degrees would be needed in home economics. This seemed extravagant, but it was a clear indication of the need. It is necessary to know that the university desires to have home economics and is ready to support it. There is a need for a clearly written statement on this point.

Also it is important to have some indication that growth in student numbers at the undergraduate level suggest a need for graduate work. For example, at the beginning of our work in India home management was not sufficiently developed to warrant the initiation of a graduate program in this subject; so it was delayed. Another factor to consider is the availability of the supporting sciences and arts. These may not be available at the level needed for graduate study in the various areas of home economics. Other questions to be asked are: Will our contribution fit into the graduate education system of the country concerned? In building a body of knowledge for home economics in another country what are the most basic problems to attack? Where do you begin?

Dr. Margaret C. Warning: Try to understand the philosophy of the people with whom we will be working. For example, course work is not an important part of the traditional grudate program in India. Independence of study and research completed are important. One must find out what the particular emphases are in graduate education in a country before starting to do either research or graduate work.

Dr. Marguerite Scruggs: In relation to what are the most basic problems to attack and where you begin in home economics education, the home economics education personnel have started with studies to obtain information essential for making decisions about objectives to be sought in the educational program. Tyler[1] discusses these sources of information for determining objectives and suggests: (1) studies of the learners themselves, (2) studies of contemporary life outside the school, (3) suggestions about objectives from subject specialists, (4) the use of philosophy in selecting objectives, (5) the use of a psychology of learning in selecting objectives.

At Baroda, studies of the learner have included investigation of characteristics of graduate students in the home science program as a means of determining their educational needs, of practices in the homes, and of problems related to home science that are recognized by adolescents. The determination of educational needs calls not only for studying these characteristics of learners but also comparing the findings with standards that are desirable or acceptable so that the present characteristics of the learner can be compared with the standards in order to determine the educational needs. The need for such standards also raises the question of who establishes the standard.

Dean LeBaron: Another question: How does one go about finding what the resources are and what has been done already?

Dr. Glenn R. Hawkes: In child development there seemed to be a lack of what might be called "storehouses of knowledge." In the various fields it is important to make a survey of the knowledge resources and to explore contacts with related professions which may have initiated research work in their field of interest but which also may be related to home economics. For example, contacts were made with an institute in Ahmedabad that was superior in child development, and from that contact many other valuable contacts were made.

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[1] Ralph W. Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, The University of Chicago Press, 1950.

The importance of developing an appreciation of the culture of the people and of the people's resources cannot be overemphasized. These things are basic for the development of research which will have real meaning for another country.

Dr. Wilma D. Brewer: Several references have been made during the symposium to the critical need for research in food and nutrition in technically developing countries. The need is especially great in relation to the nutrition and food of families. Yet there has been extensive research on world problems of food and nutrition during the past 20 years. The research, supported by foundations, government, and international agencies has been conducted by workers from multiple disciplines including bio-chemistry, medicine, and agriculture.

Active programs in nutrition are under way in several centers in India. At the same time there are relatively few persons who have been trained in food and nutrition and who are qualified for research and graduate teaching. Thus the support of related disciplines is essential for a strong program of food and nutrition to be developed within home economics. Baroda University is fortunate that Dr. C.V. Ramakrishnan, head of biochemistry, recognized the contribution which food and nutrition could make to the health and welfare of Indian people and accepted the responsibility for the guidance and direction of the program. Close cooperation between the two departments has helped to make maximal use of resources of personnel, facilities, and funds.

Dr. Margaret I. Liston: During the first two years of the home management phase of the Baroda project, main attention was given to strengthening the undergraduate program. However, at the end of this period a curriculum for the master's degree in home management was developed and approved. As graduate enrollment increased and as staff resources became available for implementing graduate study and research, some exciting and highly relevant research began to emerge. This is oriented to identification of family needs and to development of facts and principles which can be used in helping to meet major needs. If sound subject matter relevant for education for family life in India is to be developed, research related to the major problems is a must. Toward this end, excellent cooperation of several governmental and industrial organizations has been obtained.

One example of a study just now being completed is a comparison of the uses and costs of several cooking fuels as observed under living conditions of about a dozen homes. This well designed study was financed by the Burmah Shell Company. A staff member from the Physics Department was loaned to assist with the study.

Another kind of research being initiated relates to government housing. Here again, with the help of several government housing organizations, studies aim to determine the housing problems of families who live in government facilities and to develop recommendations for dealing with these problems.

A third type of research relates to development of standards for household equipment. On this there are excellent reciprocal relationships between the Baroda researchers and the Indian Standards Institute. A fourth area of research involves exploratory studies of the homemaking roles of Indian wives.

One of the many impressions I had during our brief observations of the instruction, extension, and research activities in a few areas of India was that they encounter many difficulties in the application of basic principles to their local situations. Part of this is due to differences in the cultural patterns among the various states of India as well as in the religious and social classes within states.

Dr. Scruggs: Dr. Mattie Pattison is preparing an annotated bibliography of research related to all areas of home economics. She has been bringing together all of the information about studies that have been conducted by personnel in such fields as social work, extension, education, and psychology, as well as home science.

Dean LeBaron: Why are we emphasizing research in our graduate program in India? Traditionally Indian universities award masters degrees after two years of course work. The Ph.D. is the research degree. There is great need for information from research for use in the home science teaching program. The spirit of research has been contagious with the Baroda Indian faculty. A great difference in attitude was observed after they became interested in research. In addition to contributing to the store of knowledge the master's thesis research has provided stimulation to the faculty.

What are some of the differences between working with graduate students abroad and in the U.S.

Dr. Warning: Working with Indian students in Baroda was very gratifying. The eagerness of the students to learn and to progress was stimulating. It may have been unusually keen because for several months the students had looked forward to the program which we were initiating there and to our arrival. In the first year on the project we had nine students studying for master's degrees in textiles and clothing. For a time some of the students undoubtedly failed to understand what I was trying to say, and they were too polite to tell me that they did not understand. With better acquaintance they began to ask for repetitition, explanation, and for personal help. This is a relationship or a state which took some time to develop. One must recognize a considerable difference in semantics. For example, to them, the work "paper" meant an examination. There are many other terms that had different connotations to the students and to me. Another point of importance in working with people and graduate students in other countries is an alertness to their feelings. One encounters certain handicaps too. Library books are not always handy to get. Typewriters and skilled typists are scarce.

Students became so enthusiastic about their work that they did not wish to go home even during the holidays. They were willing to keep right on working on their research or theses. In fact they would consume all seven days of the week if you did not protect them.

Dr. Scruggs: It was thrilling to sit in on conferences in which students were telling about their research. The amount of effort required to get the data in India appeared to be much greater than is required by graduate students in this country. For example, in obtaining information about pupils or home economics teachers in secondary schools, the graduate student in India went to the schools to conduct interviews. To obtain similar information in this country, the graduate student could probably have received excellent response from mailed questionnaires.

Dean LeBaron: What elements of our graduate program can be safely transplanted? Which cannot?

Dr. Hawkes: Factual material related to the growth of children and to the development of families has much universal meaning. Knowledge gleaned from studies in various cultures gives us a basis for comparative studies which illuminate similarities and differences in various parts of the world. These ideas can be safely transplanted. Furthermore, research techniques and related knowledge can be transplanted if one takes into account differences in the level of development in the various countries.

Values and goals necessary in understanding child development and family relationships cannot be safely transplanted. These values and goals must grow out of the knowledge of a particular country in which a person is working. It is highly inappropriate for us to impose our values and goals on countries other than our own.

Many of the attitudes important in cooperative research can be developed in this country and safely transplanted. Furthermore a philosophy of cooperation, which incidentally seems to be most advanced in this country (USA), can be fostered and should be exported.

Dr. Warning: The use of course work to prepare for research and to gain knowledge of a high level should be transplanted. Seminars and discussions which develop exchange of ideas and thinking rather than memorizing are valuable to transplant. We should not try to transplant some things such as our grading system. This is hard to avoid since many faculties are western educated. An additional observation is that a little hesitancy exists on the part of some parents to accept western education.

Dean Le Baron: The value of all home economics programs in any country depends on the quality of the graduate program in that country.

INTERNATIONALIZING HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

by Forrest G. Moore*

Urged on by foundation grants, by their views of what international education should be in the 20th century, by the presence of ever larger numbers of foreign students on their campuses, and by U.S. government contracts to stimulate economic development, universities are dashing headlong into an era of internationalizing education from top to bottom. What is international education and by what means does an educational institution, a college, or a department in a university transform its program so that is becomes an international one?

In the past international education has been referred to as:

> the attempt to create in students what is sometimes called the international mind... the phrase may mean trying to train sensible intellectual attitudes toward other nations and helping people to escape from foolish or wicked forms of national pride.[1]

This is not what we mean today by the term. We are now concerned with the means by which an educational institution or an academic discipline restructures its principles and content so that its teachers can train students whose ability to move from culture to culture and practice their vocation successfully and with felicitous results is unquestioned.

University Practices and Some Issues in International Education

To give focus to their efforts to internationalize, many universities are in the process of making a self-study of needed changes or have already appointed an international dean. His functions vary from campus to campus, but in general, he does the following:

1. Serves as a coordinator of the institution's involvements in international programs.
2. Serves as a stimulator of faculty and department involvement in international program activities.
3. Takes charge of screening and presenting proposals to appropriate sponsors of international programs .
4. Manages grant funds allocated to the institution for international programs.

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*Dr. Moore is associate professor of education and director, Office of the Adviser to Foreign Students, University of Minnesota.

[1] Paul Van Dyke in personal discussions with John E. Harley and quoted in International Understanding; Agencies Educating for a New World, Stanford University Press, 1931.

5. Serves as liaison officer with foundations and federal agencies disbursing funds for international programs.

In the larger universities, there is an even greater decentralization of functions. Colleges have appointed individual coordinators of international programs or have named committees to represent the interests of the colleges.

The problem of all our present approaches to internationalizing of education is suggested in the Ford Foundation report, The University and World Affairs. In this report it is pointed out that we must be alert if we are to avoid international education becoming an accretion on present structures rather than a vital dimension of them. The report goes on to state:

> The crux of any effort must be the broadening of the competence and the outlook of faculties. Only if faculty members are enabled to add knowledge of other areas and cultures, only if they have time to rework and develop courses to draw upon their foreign experience, only if they can strengthen contacts with scholars of other countries, and only if their efforts are reinforced by the addition of specialists in relevant departments and by library resources and other materials, can they develop effectively this frontier of American higher education.[2]

The elements in a program for international education (as proposed by the Ford Foundation report) that need to be considered as colleges and universities go about making changes are:

1. Consideration of curriculum changes. It is suggested that during undergraduate life, all students should get an introduction to a culture and a language other than their own, that part of each student's life be spent overseas, that graduate training include an emphasis on the problems of the vocation that are international in their scope, and that thesis research be done on just such problems.

2. The training of foreign nationals. The educational experience of foreign students must be made relevant to the environment in which the training will be used.

3. The universities' involvement overseas. Institutions should undertake assignments within their competence, relating these assignments to their present interests and strengths.

4. Continuing education in world affairs. Colleges and universities must assure that there is widespread citizen understanding and support for the role of educational institutions in international education.[3]

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[2] Committee on the University and World Affairs, The University and World Affairs, The Ford Foundation, New York, 1960.

[3] Ibid.

While the institution must focus at the top administrative level on its international responsibilities, it will fail to achieve its goal of meeting them unless international education is recognized as an element in all education. We must recognize that it is not a discipline, but an element in each discipline. This calls for total involvement. It calls not for the appointment of a dean, but the assuming by each faculty member and administrator of a share of the task of making education international. One of the most difficult decisions we face lies in teaching methods. In the same class can we teach:

> The American who expects to be home country-bound and cares little about other than a narrow view of the world?
>
> The American who wants to know about other cultures for the purpose of teaching others about cultural likenesses and differences?
>
> The American who expects to spend most of his life in positions that call for a thorough understanding of another culture?
>
> The foreign student who needs to initiate the changes that his own culture will tolerate?

We are doing this whether we like it or not, and we really have little idea as to which student is getting the least for his money. Some would say that training the foreign student as if he were to spend his life in the U. S. best prepares him for long range leadership in his own country. But will he still be in his own country when its ready for his brand of leadership? Pretty doubtful!

Others take the view that the foreign student should be completely separated from his American counterpart. They argue that he should be taught through a curriculum that is especially designed to provide him with techniques that can be used at once and effectively in his home setting. Obviously the right mix of these two ideas is what we are really looking for.

And what of home economics -- does it have a role in international education? Like every other discipline it is heavily involved in all of the ways mentioned above in the internationalizing of education.

The Elements of the Universities' Involvement in International Education

The numbers of foreign students in the United States in the field of home economics has continued to increase. Data for the years 1955 to 1964 is given below:[4]

Year	Total of Foreign Students	Number in Home Economics
1955	34,232	445
1956	36,494	500

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[4] _Open Doors_, Institute of International Education, New York, 1955, to 1964 issues.

Total	Total of Foreign Students	Number in Home Economics
1957	40,666	560
1958	43,391	535
1959	47,245	591
1960	48,486	584
1961	53,107	579
1962	58,086	628
1963	64,705	690
1964	74,814	810

The direct affiliation of American universities providing technical assistance to foreign universities as listed by Paul Bodeman in 1957 included:[5]

Colorado A & M with University of Peshawar - 1954-1957
Purdue University with Rural University of the State of Minas Gerais -1954-?
University of Tennessee with the Government of India - 1955-1958
Texas A & M with the University of Dacca - 1956-?

The Michigan State Survey listed these four programs and three additional ones:[6]

University of Maine with the Dept. of Education, St. Johns, Newfoundland
Cornell University with Servico Cooperativo Interamericano de Salud Publica, Lima, Peru
University of Puerto Rico with Turrialba Institute, Costa Rica

When it comes to making curriculum changes we find little that we can refer to as guideline material. Here and there we may find a course title to which has been appended the word "international" or the course which includes comparative materials. But no one apparently attempted the thorough reshaping of the materials, ideas, and bibliography needed to make a course of maximum effectiveness for both American and foreign students.

This also seems true in the broader field of extension home economics education. It is estimated, for example, that 10-15,000 of the foreign students in this country have wives and children with them; yet there are few attempts to utilize the skills and insights of home economics for their more fruitful and satisfying existence here as well as for their use when they return home. Perhaps the problem lies in our failure to use the experience we already have as a corrective in planning how to deal with the acculturation process that is involved in educating those who are to spend their professional lives in a setting other than that in which they are taught.

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[5] Paul S. Bodeman, "American Cooperation with Higher Education Abroad; A Survey of Current Programs," Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1957, Bulletin No. 8.

[6] Institute of Research on Overseas Programs, The International Programs of American Universities, Michigan State University Press, 1958.

The Involvement of Educational Institutions Overseas

Let us now look briefly at the record of our involvement overseas:

In his study of U.S. programs overseas, Weidner indicates that in general better results were obtained when we emphasized institution building rather than when we emphasized direct help. Innovations in courses and curricula were successful in some countries and rejected in others. New adaptations in certain fields of study were more readily accepted than in others. Innovations in courses in agriculture, teacher education, and applied sciences were numerous; there was less success in programs that had to do with the professions and the fundamental disciplines.[7]

The attempt to make methods of teaching more democratic, providing a helping relationship between student and professor, has largely failed. There has been some use of the case method with local materials; but the lecture to large classes is still the norm, and emphasis on memorization still continues. American examination methods have not been welcome. The teaching technique with greatest success has been the use of reading materials to supplement class work. Libraries are improving and formal text books are more in use.

Efforts to train faculty members and give them better experience often floundered on the problems of working with part-time faculty members who were poorly paid and had no hope of getting higher salaries if they did a better job of teaching.

The University of Tennessee reports that the success it enjoyed in India was due to its plan of counterpart relationships. Home service was a new field, really just beginning in India in the early 1950's and women's education was being pushed rapidly. Thus home science found a ready market, schools were built, and curricula were established. However, there is still a critical need for home science textbooks and other teaching materials based on Indian home and family life. American materials are still being adapted to local conditions -- and with only limited success since most of the teachers making adaptations are young and inexperienced.[8]

Henry Hart, in his critique of the home science project, also points out that the University of Tennessee's India project began when home science was new to India. Six years before, only one institution offered courses in home economics and home management and these were held in low repute. When the University of Tennessee began its project, only Madras, with four colleges, Delhi University's Lady Irwin College, and Baroda offered courses. At Baroda in 1954 there were three graduate students in home management and child development -- the only graduate students in this field in all of India.

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[7] Edward W. Weidner, The Role of Universities, Michigan State University Press, 1962.

[8] UT-India Home Science Programs, 1955-62, University of Tennessee, 1962.

Hart says this program had an impact on this new and formative discipline not matched by any other contract program in India. The team helped lay out building plans, assisted with a thorough revision of curriculum in six institutions, made deliberate arrangements for the development of theyounger staff at its host institutions, and helped initiate and plan meetings of the entire profession in India.[9]

Hart points out that thehome economics program was an example of an effort designed to reach an entire country. However, he sees the home economics project as less well thought out when compared to the secondary education project. The home economics project, for example, was modified as it progressed. This could be good or bad in its effect. Hart felt that there were few real counterpart persons -- such persons are viewed as necessary in effective cross-cultural change. Of the nine colleges involved, two did not fully understand or agree with what was being done!

The contracting university was committeed; five of the eight home economists came from the University of Tennessee, three being department heads. They did use a team approach to decide policy and strategy to get a clearer view of the job to be done; they did meet to plan how to overcome specific objections to their work and to counter their spatial isolation. Hart points out what appears to be three very good reasons why the team approach may be a necessity overseas even though it is discounted at home:

1. Frustrations need to be explained to oneself with a sympathetic audience (other team members).

2. The individual must be allowed to redefine his goals in a worthwhile frame of reference. Perhaps only a term can affect anything so diffuse as a discipline, such as home economics in an entire country.

3. The team approach demonstrates and encourages better than any other technique can do the technique of "cooperation not ordered by a superior authority."

A consultant from the University of Illinois overseas team cited the importance of making sure that what happens is seen as a mission of Indian educators. This team's determination to make sure this happened was symbolized by its agreement "never to make a speech about how it's done in America." If the success of the program is measured by whether one is asked to return, the home economics team in India was eminently successful. Hart thinks a more relevant question is whether the work once started moved toward long term goals as effectively as possible within the resources provided. Contract teams working overseas often suffer from myopia on two counts:

> They are ordinarily isolated from the process of self criticism which gives a surer sense of direction to an academic discipline - one hesitates to criticize when so much is undergoing change.

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[9] Henry C. Hart, Campus India, Michigan State University Press, 1961.
[10] Ibid.

They are often separated from "continual and systematic contact with the needs of the people." [10]

Problems in Creating an International Dimension in the Disciplines of Higher Education

Since it is difficult to distinguish between international education and intercultural understanding, it might be useful to define these two terms. Weidner defines international education as "the discovery of new knowledge through cross-cultural contacts." [11] DuBois defines intercultural understanding as the ability to bring both intuition (affective learning) and knowledge (cognitive learning) to bear in cross-cultural situations. In her article in Education and Anthropology, DuBois gives us a good general description of the problems and conditions that face us in achieving intercultural understanding. International education at its best -- though obviously not a congruent term with intercultural understanding -- will meet conditions described by DuBois:

> For a learner to achieve intercultural understanding certain sufficient conditions must exist: Intercultural understanding must have positive value attached to it; rewards should be perceivable for such learning; cultural differences must have been experienced; the experiences must be self-related; the sequences between the self and the learned must be left unresolved. In the monocultural learner the crucial problems are when and for how long to stage in cross-cultural experiences. In the bicultural learner the crucial problem is how to establish the coherent linkages between the self and secondary groupings of two or more cultures. Educators' and teachers' rolés in respect to learners are threefold; first, to encourage an expanding system of self-relatedness; second, to supply the affective learning resources essential to intuition; and third, to provide the cognitive-rational materials necessary for systematic knowledge.
>
> Remove supportive personal elements, skip too widely and too early in the learner's life experience over the sequence of expanding self-relatedness, cut too short the time allowed to absorb new ways and objectively appraise new values, fail to provide the opportunties for experiential learning or fail to establish it as a habit of learning, distort or fail to supply systematic cross-cultural knowledge, and the learner is unlikely to achieve international understanding.
>
> For educators and teachers to perform their necessary role in this process, they must themselves possess intercultural understanding, but also they must conceive their function to be neither solely that of cultural transmitters nor solely that of innovators. Rather, their function is to translate cultural realities to individual learners whose capacities and incapacities for intercultural understanding will vary greatly not only between learner but also at various periods in the learner's life. [12]

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[10] Ibid.

[11] Op.cit.

[12] Cora DuBois, "Some Notions on Learning Intercultural Understanding," Education and Anthropology, Stanford University Press, 1954.

For a more direct approach to the problems of restructuring a discipline to meet the criteria of international or intercultural, we can turn to the conference proceedings of the November 1961 meeting of the Council on Social Work Education.

In his paper at that conference Beck points up a number of the difficulties experienced by foreign students in learning situations as seen by their professors:[13]

1. Severe handicap in English
2. The degree mania
3. Disappointment with the American educational system
4. Lack of a detailed syllabus for courses
5. Too much theory in lectures and readings

Turning to theoretical considerations, Beck points out that our problems of constructing curriculum may well hinge on our understanding of the way in which culture conditions the foreign student's perception of life and his ego involvement in maintaining his perceptions.

DuBois maintains that cross-cultural learning, or for that matter any learning, is inhibited or promoted by one's state of mind. The foreign student who is disturbed by a statement is likely to find that particular item of information difficult to learn.

When we review the evidence we find that most foreign students do well if their preparation for study in the United States leads them to acquire the habit of managing data in statistical terms. The evidence of what happens to learning in the face of feelings and emotions is not so readily checked; yet it is clear that cognitive learning is interfered with by feelings. This state of mind is often referred to by foreign student advisers as "fighting the system." There seems to be little direct relationship between it and level of intelligence, field of study, or country of origin.

Creating and International Dimension in Home Economics Education

It seems clear then that home economics, as other disciplines, can and should have an international dimension. Do we know enough about the system of creating this dimension to set about doing it? Only those who have have experience in the particular professional field can finally answer the question. We who work with the individual student can offer only hints about the problems and hypothesize about solutions.

It seems reasonable that if we are to create such a dimension we will need to begin by postulating the family and home situation in a specific country and then teach, prepare materials, and design research problems that will in fact train American or foreign students to perform in such a way so as to reach, in the selected environment, the goals of home economics education. Anthropologists, sociologists, and persons specializing the the study of the foreign country concerned will all have useful insights to offer.

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[13] Robert Beck II, "Professional Training in Education for Foreign Students in the United States," The Professional Education of Students from Other Lands, Council on Social Work Education, New York, 1961.

The home economists will first need to state the area of their responsibility. Beck quotes Baldwin as saying:

> The province of home economics is ... the application of the principles (of) many basic disciplines to the welfare of families...At different points home economics overlaps with the fields of nutrition, social work, family law, architechture, interior design, education, and consumer economics, as well as with the technological fields concerned with the development and evaluation of textiles, foods and equipment.[14]

If we look again at India as an example Margaret Cormack reminds us that:

> the Indian family is remarkable in its stability, in its emotional nurture. But
>
> 1. There is a lot of myth about the Indian family. Despite its sanctity it has always had its dark side and does now.
>
> 2. Authority clashes are increasing and are likely to increase still more. The paternalistic pattern becomes inacceptable to older youth when they become educated, when they learn a lot about the world, when they begin to feel they are "selves."
>
> 3. The Indian family is increasingly failing as a "social security system." Individuals and other institutions take over much of this function.
>
> 4. The Indian family is increasingly failing as an "emotional security system" though it may regain this function. Adult life is more complex than in the past, and children must be helped to grow into adulthood. "The innocence of childhood" may be a sweet concept, but innocence and over-protection are not guarantors of happieness."[15]

Indian education is also rapidly changing. More and more of its total population of school age children are in school and more and more of these are young women. Not only is family life changing, but the conception of what is appropriate for women is changing as well. And the educated in India approve of these changes and expect and want even greater changes. Students studying in the United States -- as described in general by Morris and Davidsen,[16] in specifics (Indian students by Lambert and Bressler[17] and the Useems[18] -- while critical of the pace and content of changes in the United States, often become the foremost advocates of change once they have returned home.

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[14] Alfred L. Baldwin (ed.) "Final Report: Institute on International Education," New York State College of Home Economics, Cornell University, 1958.

[15] Margaret L. Cormack, She Who Rides a Peacock, Frederick A. Praeger, New York, 1961.

Here we also find one of our greatest dilemmas in the construction of training programs. To train thoroughly and to the highest level is to make it likely that the individual on return may be impatient, unwilling to bide his time, and unable to affect markedly what is happening in his field. Also he becomes the targets of recruiters in educational institutions and industries in the United States. He is so well trained that he is wooed by employers in the U.S. and it in fact discouraged from going home and encouraged to remain here.

Those who espouse training to a lower level, the master's degree and the special certificate, do not count the cost of attitudes this may bring in a country that proclaims that is educates to the highest level of the individual's ability. Training ended at a lower level may be held in low regard at home and the individual may have little or no chance to demonstrate what he can do. Or his training may be so little different than that given in the home country that its value as a stimulus to necessary change is nil. What affect should these facts have on our plans for internationalizing education?

A study of returned foreign students made in 1959 showed a surprizing number of these foreign alumni in positions of middle level leadership and on the way up. There were the failures, of course, and dissatisfied persons--although most were dissatisfied in a good way at the level of rationality that promoted changes.[19]

Those who were asked about their training, i.e., whether they would do the same thing again if they had it to do over, responded by saying that they would now attempt to broaden their education, that they found themselves too specialized for their field of work on return. Most commented that the foreign trained should expect to become managers of programs and that as such it was important to know how higher education and government were organized in the United States and other parts of the world in order to make comparative judgements about these systems and their applicability in the "back home" setting. But the overwhelming response was one of satisfaction with their United States education and a desire to keep their professional contacts current in order to continue their education.

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[16] Richard T. Morris and Olug M. Davidsen, The Two-Way Mirror: National Status in Foreign Students' Adjustment, University of Minnesota Press, 1960.

[17] Richard D. Lambert and Marvin Bressler, Indian Students on an American Campus, University Of Minnesota Press, 1956.

[18] John Useem and Ruth Hill Useem, The Western-Educated Man in India; A Study of His Social Roles and Influence, Dryden Press, New York, 1955.

[19] Forrest G. Moore and Robert E. Forman, The University and Its Foreign Alumni: Maintaining Overseas Contacts, University of Minnesota Press, 1964.

Where are we then in the process of internationalizing education? Ever increasing numbers of foreign students are coming to the United States, and more Americans are serving overseas. Fewer foreign students are returning home; yet those who do are having a vital influence on their countries. There is a need for a structured curriculum; yet changes in undeveloped countries are taking place so swiftly that one scarcely knows where to begin. A larger and more highly trained staff in the university is devoted to planning and excuting programs, but only spasmodic efforts are being made to get the entire faculty involved, or to bring to bear on the problems of underdeveloped countries the fund of knowledge that has already been accumulated.

How might we alter the training of all foreign and American students to include an international dimension? Some suggestions can be cited. In a paper prepared for the guidance of AID officials interested in training young leaders of foreign countries in the skills necessary to manage cross-cultural situations it is suggested that coverage of the content areas listed below would be the most fruitful:

1. The process of cross-cultural communication
2. The theories and determinants of economic development
3. The process of assimilation and adaptation in cultural change including methods for inducing constructuve, orderly change
4. The local, area, and regional human resources position of their their respective countries
5. The use of comparative methods in evaluating the needs of a country and in formulating the processes by which these needs are met
6. An understanding, in depth, of the relevance of the American experience to the evolving of modern political, social,andc economic institutions[20]

And from where do we draw the guidance to assist us in describing the content that will provide this kind of training? I can only suggest a bibliography of some proportions as a starting point for those whose interests lie in this direction. I will not take the time to detail it here, but merely indicate that it includes materials intended to sharpen our insights into American culture and personality as well as the understanding of culture and cultural and social change. The list provides materials that give us the beginnings of a more scientific comparative method in education as well as the most recent findings in what is descrived by Franci L.K Hsu as "psychological anthropology," the study of the effect of society and culture on personality characteristics in the development, formation, and change of culture and society. These references are given at the end of this paper.

If this exposition has merely clouded your thinking without contributing to your motivation, I regret it. If the problem seems complex and confusing it is! If I seem to have given you little or no help with your problems it is because only those of you who are willing to take the time to become expert in another country or a region of the world will be able to provide the insights necessary to internationalize home economics for yourselves and for upcoming generations of American and foreign students!

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[20] "Guidelines for Proposals to Provide Summer Seminars for Non-Sponsored Students," Agency for International Development Program Paper, Washington, D.C., April 1965.

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PANEL: INTERNATIONALIZING HOME ECONOMICS PROGRAMS IN THE UNITED STATES

(Members of the panel were Miss Mary Wood, director of international home economics activities, Cornell University, and panel leader; Dr. Amy J. Knorr, home economics international student advisor, University of Arizona; Dr. Vivian Roberts, director, School of Home Economics, Ohio University; Miss Gertrude Drinker, program specialist, International Agricultural Development Service, USDA and Mr. Eugene L. Clubine, foreign student adviser, Iowa State University.)

Introduction

by Mary Wood

Home economics has a tradition of international concern and involvement, but the demands of students from other countries and of Americans preparing for international assignments have increased rapidly in recent years. To keep pace with society's needs, we are increasingly aware of the need to systematically incorporate cross-cultural materials and global aspects in our college and university programs in our programs of undergraduate and graduate resident instruction, research, cooperative extension and public service.

Dr. Moore pointed out that adequate training should enable our students to move from culture to culture and provide competent professional assistance.[1] This need was also emphasized in the "Report of the Joint Committee of USDA and Land-Grant Universities on Education for Government Service," issued in May 1965.

Two of the recommendations regarding implementation of training and education in agriculture for the foreign service merit consideration by home economists:

(1) Training in education for both domestic and international responsibilities should be carried out at the same time. Training programs and college curricula should include courses in world view, world population and resources, comparative religions, and cultural anthropology. A good education should require courses of this sort whether the student goes overseas or not. Personnel returning from international assignments should be utilized as resource personnel.

(2) There are several deficient areas in present training that should be corrected. Some of these deficient areas are languages, area studies, and understanding of international problems and objectives. USDA and the universities should take appropriate action to overcome these deficiencies -- such as the establishment of institutes or other cooperative training programs.

Major considerations are the broadening of competence and outlook of faculties; the objectives and content of programs; and the need for research opportunities in other cultures.

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[1] See chapter by Forrest Moore, pages 167-178 of this report.

This morning Dr. Moore pointed out that one of our first tasks is the broadening of competence and outlook of faculties.

Appropriate experiences, materials and references for academic advisers need to be provided; effective use should be made of visiting professors and scholars from overseas, and the background of faculty members who travel spasmodically or on a continuous assignment should be utilized.

Objectives and content of programs may refer to the ultimate, the specific, the norms. They require the inclusion of cross-cultural materials and global concepts; e.g., recognition of the many ways by which people can be well fed.

To encourage intercultural understanding, experiences must be provided to influence attitudinal learning as well as rational learning.

Curricula should include the economic principles which help us to understand the focus of change.

Research in other cultures and socio-economic groups within these cultures may well be encouraged. There is need for continuing professional contacts with people in other cultures.

A world community of professional colleagues may be an outcome of intercultural competence.

Perceiving Our Objectives

by Amy J. Knorr

If the international elements of home economics programs in the United States is to be of vital dimension rather than merely a patchwork of activities added to present programs,we need to have some clear understanding about the objectives of our field. Both we and our students need to develop a sense of the mission of our field.

Let me try to set forth my line of thinking. The ultimate objectives of home economics is to contribute to the full human development of individuals through sound home and family life. This is an objective that is as appropriate for Nigeria and for Latin America as for the United States. It was as appropriate at the beginning of our profession as it is now and as it will be in 2000.

At least four of our speakers in this conference have made reference to the responsibility of home economics for influencing the nature and quality of the environment to foster conditions in society and in the home and family which will permit the full development of human beings. At any rate, this is the meaning I attach to these phrases: "using human resources for human welfare," and "evaluating the degree of humanism of the field."

This ultimate objective does not change in time and in space what does differ from time to time and from place to place is our knowledge of what full human development is and our knowledge of what will foster it in a given set of societal conditions. You will recall Dr. Butts' statement concerning the need for research (building knowledge) about the economic growth of a country, its social conditions, its political trends and the relation of these to personality formation.[2] It is from knowledge such as this that the specific objectives of home economics programs are to be derived.

I believe that we and our students need to understand the logical and scientific relationships between the ultimate purpose of the field and the specific purposes of our educational programs as they are developed in a particular time and place. Otherwise we run the risk of seeing our specific objectives as ends in themselves and we are not in a position, to quote Dr. Moore, "to teach, prepare materials, and design research problems that will in fact train American or foreign students to perform in such a way as to reach in the selected environment the goals of home economics education."[2]

No doubt you can think of many examples of programs or plans for programs in which the specific objectives did not appear to have a valid relationship to the ultimate purpose of home economics. Let me give just one. As I worked with a young woman from Viet Nam studying at the undergraduate level in food and nutrition in a class in curriculum development, I thought all was going well -- that she was understanding principles of curriculum development -- until she turned in a first draft of curriculum material for a proposed college class in food and nutrition for Viet Nam. She had reproduced in essence the study program that she had experienced in food and nutrition at the university in which she was studying. This was home economics as she had experienced it and believed it to be. She was -- as our profession has been from time to time -- "hung up on the level of specific objectives," and she had missed the whole point of the larger mission of the field.

I believe that both foreign students and students from the United States need to develop understanding of why we -- in our culture -- choose to deal with certain specific objectives in home economics and what we see to be the relation of them to our ultimate objective.

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[2] See chapter by Forrest G. Moore, pages 167-178 of this report.

Helping Foreign Students Adapt Knowledge from Classrooms To Be Useful in Their Own Countries

by Vivian Roberts

To train International students is both a privilege and a responsibility. We learn along with the students; it is an experience of working together and of learning to understand and trust one another. To develop an awareness of the cultural similarities and differences of our students, and to learn about their families, their religious beliefs and practices, their homes, their interests, and their arts, crafts, and industries are exhilarating experiences to all of us.

At Ohio University we have been fortunate, for the most part, in terms of the students who come to study home economics. They have been serious students, eager to learn. Most of the participants are training for teaching or extension service, and feel dedicated to serve their native countries when they return.

The question arises on our campus as it has many times during this conference, "Do we maintain the same academic standards for our international students as we hold for our own students?" The answer is, "Yes, we do." Courses in general education, including the natural sciences, mathematics, the social sciences, the humanities, and communications, make up about 50 per cent of the curriculum. Basic and advanced courses in home economics, along with supporting courses in the professional field, constitute the other half.

It is our belief, however, that if we stopped at this point in the training of students from other countries we would not be fulfilling our responsibility to the student, nor to the government or agency sending these students to us. A program developed solely along traditional western lines certainly will not suffice.

Most of the students are able to maintain high academic standards in the classroom. However, as undergraduate students without experience in the professional field, they need guidance in interpreting and adapting the knowledge gained in the classroom to be useful in their own countries. One must devise a favorable climate for understanding basic needs in the new countries, and for the promotion of mutual aid to help them solve their problems.

I shall cite some of the experiences we give our students so that they may put to practical use in their homelands the basic principles learned in the classroom.

1. Special projects and reports in some courses may be directed toward the participant's home country. Let me cite the study of nutrition as an example. The student studies health problems and nutritional diseases

found in her country. She may develop basic food plans and charts, using native foods available, and make plans for teaching the use of these foods. This experience serves a dual purpose: first, the international student is learning to apply her knowledge where it can be useful, and second, our American students are acquiring a broader perspective as to the life and feeding habits of peoples in other parts of the world.

2. Seminars are developed for international students in home economics, which again relate technical knowledge to the practical problems. The major purpose of these seminars is two-fold:

   a. To help the students to evaluate experiences which they have had in this country and synthesize information pertinent to their respective countries.

   b. To help them see ways in which they might adapt and apply this information when developing home economics programs in their country.

The study of bacteriology may be cited as an example. This subject has many applications in developing countries. Sanitation, waste disposal, water supply, food storage, insects, food preservation, health practices, and personal hygiene can all be discussed freely, for the students are able to share ideas of mutual concern.

In one seminar there was a group of students from a country where home economics was not well accepted. These participants spent considerable time in devising ways to promote home economics among educators, the government administration, and the general public. They have returned home with master's degrees to help develop a program for training teachers for the secondary schools. Through this seminar, they gained confidence that a great deal could be done, even though they may run into some obstacles.

Other seminars of equal value may be concerned with health and home care of the sick, infant and child care, housing and home management, food habits and nutrition, or clothing the family.

It is unfortunate that we do not have sufficient staff oriented to teaching these seminars to international students so we can offer the course each semester. We are confident that such seminars serve our international students in a way we cannot always do in the classroom.

Another project, developed cooperatively with the Agency for International Development, the U.S. Department of Agriculture, and Ohio University has been a seminar and workshop on home improvement. This started as a pilot study in 1963, with 12 participants from six countries. Over an eight-week period, these women were taught how to make simple home improvements and equipment which would lead to more comfortable and healthful living. Stress was also put on program planning, development of leadership within a community, a variety of good teaching methods, and the development of visual aids.

Last year there were 19 participants from 9 different countries representing the Far East, Africa, South America and Europe. International understanding and appreciation of other cultures were demonstrated throughout the six-week period in which the participants lived and worked together. In addition to classroom and laboratory experiences, they participated in many field trips. A village kitchen and laundry were built, complete with range, sink, storage units, iceless cooler, work benches, shower, etc.

The Ohio University administration was very generous in providing greater facilities for the workshop in 1965. A small village home of stone block, with a tin roof, was built. The floor is cement; windows and doors are screened. There are no furnishings or partitions, for it is to be used as a demonstration house for students to create a home suitable for the needs of their country. An adjoining arbor may serve as an outdoor kitchen or laundry. There is plenty of surrounding space where a garden may be developed, or an outside area for the children to play. Some participants suggest an area to keep the poultry and animals from running wild.

The 1965 workshop was planned to include 42 participants from 13 different countries, with representatives of French speaking African countries being taught through interpretors.

Other Comments of Panel Members

Miss Drinker: Who is doing something to help the wives who do not speak English to learn English?

Mr. Clubine: In my mind, we as educators must keep wives of foreign students in mind when planning a total program for foreign students. This is important from at least two aspects. First, for the welfare and happiness of the foreign wife and second to allow as much freedom as possible for the foreign student to pursue his academic course work.

One program which should be seriously considered is English as a second language course for wives. It is as important for wives as for their husbands to know English. If the wife does not know English the husband is likely to speak in his native tongue when at home. This does not help the husband improve his English, which is so essential in his academic achievement. If the wife knows English it will allow her to participate more freely in the academic community, both socially and intellectually. This will lend to her security and happiness as well as allow her to function separately from her husband, thus giving him more freedom for academic pursuits.

Many universities have developed orientation programs for foreign students. But what about wives and their problems? Problems of grocery buying, operating the automatic washer, what soap to buy, pre-rinsing diapers before putting them in the washer, money management, etc. -- all of these problems may help make the position of the foreign student very uncomfortable if his wife cannot handle them in stride.

I feel that we at Iowa State have not taken the wives' orientation as seriously as we should.

Many wives of foreign students have degrees in their home country and would like to use and increase their knowledge while in the United States; however, we do not provide the opportunities. In many instances we are wasting a real human resource, because of our failure to investigate the background of the women and to use this knowledge constructively on our university campus.

I fully realize that I have mentioned only a few possibilities. I am sure many of our participants could name others.

Miss Wood: Many wives of diplomats in New York City find it a formidable place. Nursery schools have been established where these women can leave their children, a day, a half day, or week. Cornell University plans to invite these women to the campus to acquaint them with home economics. They will be guests of the faculty and will be introduced to the extension service. Mention was made during this conference that we should make an effort to acquaint the wives of foreign students and diplomats with the role of home economics in a developing nation and also that we should give this information to foreign students in other subject matter fields, many of whom will eventually hold influential positions in their countries.

Miss Drinker: It is tragic that we are not being asked to send more home economists abroad. There is need for influential American women to go around the world, to talk about the status of women and to show the need for home economics. Our efforts heretofore have often been spasmodic.

Home economics objectives are universally appropriate for all nations. The purpose of home economics is to contribute to the full human development of individuals through home and family life, to convert wealth of a country to the welfare of human beings.

Internationalizing of a program means reviewing the total program and its objectives. Each of us and our students need to have a better idea of our mission. Students must begin to realize that we live in a world, not just in the USA.

THE ROLE OF THE FAO IN THE INTERNATIONAL HOME ECONOMICS EFFORT

presented by Coradel Hamilton*

A land-grant university is a most appropriate setting for presenting the home economics activities of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. As I read the report of these activities I am sure that all of you will see how closely the development of home economics within the FAO is paralleling the development of home economics within the U.S. Department of Agriculture and the land-grant colleges. I hope that you will also recognize that the same basic philosophy of education for women which motivated the early pioneers of home economics education in the United States is motivating their counterparts on the international scene and in developing countries today. They, too, believe that women have rights to education equal to those of their brothers. These broad-minded men and women -- scientists, government workers, sociologists, economists, and educators -- also have a keen perception of the role of the family as the structural unit in a healthy national life. They also are participating actively in national and international conferences to try to develop for their countries some basic philosophical concepts relating to the education of women, the promotion of an education recognizing the home and the need of wholesome family living for all. They are also recognizing the place of the new discipline of home economics in institutions of higher learning, the promotion of a literature for home economics, the synthesis of its subject matter, the organization of courses of study, the inadequacy of existing curricula, and the need for research, just as the early leaders in the development of home economics as a profession (for example: Ellen H Richards, W.O. Atwater, Charles Ford Langworthy, Thomas D. Wood, W.A. Baldwin, Mary Swartz Rose, Amy L. Daniels, Henry C. Sherman, J.H. Kellogg) struggled at the historical Lake Placid conferences.

One of the responsibilities of FAO is to give technical and operational guidance to these efforts.

The activities of FAO are directed toward improving nutrition conditions and bettering living conditions among rural populations. The activities of the Home Economic Branch are [redacted] primarily in strengthening the role and contribution of women to these efforts. Governments of developing countries are showing an increasing interest in programs that will enable women to play a more effective role in economic and social development.

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*Dr. Hamilton is Chief, Home Economics Branch, Nutrition Division, Food and Agricultural Organization.

[1] Pearl Swanson, "Charles Ford Langworthy - A Biographical Sketch," The Journal of Nutrition, 86; May 3, 1965.

The Role Of the FAO in International Home Economics

As many of you remember, the World Food Congress, held in Washington, D.C., in June 1963 was timed to coincide with the 20th anniversary of the First International Conference on Food and Agriculture. The first conference, which was convened by President Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1943, took the initial action toward the creation of FAO.

It was in Quebec, Canada, slightly one year later -- on October 16, 1945. that the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations was formally created.

On that day, 42 governments -- the member nations of FAO -- signed the FAO constitution. The task assigned to FAO by these 42 member nations, as written in the preamble to the FAO constitution, includes securing improvements in the efficiency of production and distribution of all food and agriculture products. Particular reference is made to bettering the conditions of rural populations for the purpose of raising the level of nutrition.

From its inception in 1945, FAO has served as an organizing and conducting agency. Today, it has 106 members and five associate members. In exercising its authority and responsibility, FAO promotes the review and exchange of information, the study and solving of problems of common interest, and the planning of action programs in food and agriculture. It promotes such activities among representatives of national governments and scientific agencies, bodies, and organizations.

The role of FAO in the international home economics effort can be identifed by the scope of its activities, the way it plans its program of assistance, and the close cooperation it maintains with other organizations and agencies.

The major objectives of FAO as stated in the preamble of its constitution, are "to help member governments raise levels of nutrition and standards of living of rural people." Home economics,thus, through the application of science to the problems of the home and the welfare of the family, forms and integral part of FAO. As early as 1949, FAO recognized the important contribution that home economics could make toward the attainment of its goals. In that year home economics activities were initiated into or were included as part of the program of the Rural Welfare Division. In 1951 home economics became a section in the int the Nutrition Division, and in 1959 it was elevated to a branch. FAO is the only agency in the United Nations' family of specialized agencies that has home economists on its staff at headquarters and in its regional offices -- Latin America, Africa, the Near East, and Southeast Asia and the Far East. In developing and implementing its program of activities in the area of home economics, FAO works in close cooperation with the other agencies of the United Nations concerned with the well-being of families. (See Appendix E.)

FAO Assistance in Home Economics to its Member Countries

Widely differing customs, traditions, social, and economic conditions within and among countries make it difficult to generalize about the design, organization, and content of programs which FAO member governments are establishing to attain their objectives. FAO contributes to the development of the home economics aspects of these programs through encouraging and assisting governments. Thus it makes studies of the social, economic, cultural, and family living patterns which can be used later as the bases for develcping educational programs for women and their families; it conducts surveys and compiles inventories of present country activities in home economics and related fields; it considers the implications of these findings in developing national plans for implementing these programs.

FAO provides advisory and consultant service to assist governments in establishing, strengthening, and appraising home economics programs, and in coordinating these with other national training and service projects related to social and economic development. FAO provides home economists to help member countries strengthen their training programs and field services. Through meetings, seminars, assistance in establishing training centers and institutions of training, and a fellowship program, FAO contributes to the training of national workers in the area of home economics. Governments of FAO member countries are furnished reports of the findings of surveys and studies, reports of meetings and seminars, and reports by consultants and experts who have completed country assignments. FAO prepares and publishes timely technical information of common interest to member countries. It is now preparing the first two of a series of technical publications in the area of home economics, "Child Care-A Handbook for Village Workers and Leaders" and "Building, Planning and Equipment of Home Economics Centers."

Governments as well as FAO recognize the great importance of training in successfully implementing governments plans to improve levels of living and economic development. One of FAO's major areas of activities is to help its member countries to establish and strengthen permanent institutions for home economics training and to develop curricula in home economics for ad hoc and in-service training programs for the staff of all national services concerned with economic and social welfare. This assistance is usually provided with aid from the United Nations Childrens Fund, the United Nations Special Fund, the Freedom From Hunger Campaign, and bilateral sources. Frequently these programs are developed jointly with the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, the United Nations Bureau of Social Affairs, and the International Labor Organization. International home economists for staffing these programs may be provided under the Expanded Technical Assistance Program of the United Nations Technical Assistance Board. Within the organization of FAO these programs are developed in close cooperation, jointly, and are coordinated with the educational and training programs of the Applied Nutrition Branch of the Nutrition Division, FAO's Special Program of Agricultural Education and Training for Africa, the Land Tenure and Settlement Branch, the Agricultural Education and Extension Branch, and the Co-operatives, Credit and Rural Sociology Branch of the Rural Institutions and Services Division.

Experience reveals that programs are most successful when they form an integral part of the broad patterns of activities that relate to the home, farm, family, and community life of individuals of all ages and both sexes, and when they are concerned with the wide range of activities important to women. These activities include producing, preserving, and preparing food for the family; improving the sanitary and physical environment of the home to protect the health and well-being of family members; caring for and training children; making and care of clothing and articles for household use; making a contribution to the financial and other resources of the family; and wisely managing the use of all available resources including those provided through community services. One service is not sufficient to provide women with all the training, information, and services they need. Programs designed to advance economic and social development among rural populations must draw on all the resources of the country including medical and health education, social and family welfare, in-school education, informal adult education, youth clubs, agricultural extension, and community development. The duties of each of these services must be defined; a clear distinction must be made as to each one's function within areas of operation; and their activities must be coordinated so that the efforts of each service will supplement those of the other. FAO strongly stresses this need for coordination of programs. FAO also urges that all home economics activities be developed as part of national policy in coordination with national plans for social and economic development.

FAO encourages member governments to formulate programs in which women play an active role. In strengthening the contribution of women toward improving the levels and conditions of family life, emphasis is given to improving food production from the land, improving food handling from harvest to consumption, and improving food utilization in the home. The necessity to strive toward increasing the availability and consumption of protein-rich foods is constantly stressed.

While FAO's main assistance to member countries continues to be in the area of improving family living in rural communities, assistance in improving conditions of family life in the newly urbanized areas of developing countries is becoming increasingly important.

Governments of developing countries are requesting advice and assistance to promote and support effective programs for training international and national home economists for their programs. As the result of formal agreements with the governments of several member countries, nationals of various countries are now working under the supervision of FAO experts on a number of FAO's field projects. These include members of Peace Corps of the United States; Volunteers from the United Kingdom, Austria, and Denmark; and associate experts from the Netherlands, Belgium, France, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and the Federal Republic of Germany.

FAO's current activities in the area of home economics are listed according to regions in Appendix D.

FAO maintains reciprocal consultative relations with a wide group of voluntary, non-government and professional organizations. These include the Associate Country Women of the World (ACWW), the International Council of Women (ICW), the World's Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA), the International Federation of Home Economics, and many others.

As mentioned earlier, the governments of 106 FAO member nations and five associate members particpate actively in planning FAO's program. This participation may be in the form of a request from an individual government for a specific or general type of assistance. It may be in the form of recommendations made at one of the biennial regional conferences of governments of member countries or at regional or national seminars and meetings.

Activities in which the Home Economics Branch is engaged during the current biennium as the result of recommendations made at one or more of these conferences and meetings are included in Appendix F. At the biennial session of the FAO conferences, the governments of member countries have the opportunity of reviewing and making suggestions for modifying the FAO's program of work and budget for the ensuing biennium.

Ad hoc meetings of advisory groups have contributed much to the development of FAO's program of home economics activities in Europe. In 1961, an ad hoc European Advisory Group[2] was established to work in close collaboration with FAO to study working conditions in Austria;[3] to plan and conduct a European seminar to evaluate home economics programs;[4] and to promote international collaboration on home economics research. During an ad hoc meeting on long-term planning in home economics for Europe, held in Rome November 1964, a long-term program in home economics was planned for Europe.[5] In May a Working Party on Home Economics was established within the framework of the European Commission on Agriculture[6] to give guidance and direction to the development of this program. The board of the Working Party will hold its first meeting in Rome in August 1965.

A meeting held in Cairo in 1959 on training in home economics for the Near East[7] has given direction and guidance to the development of programs of home economics education in this region. This fall governments of FAO member countries from this region are participating in a seminar which has the objective of formulating guidelines for strengthening extension services in home economics and agriculture.

In developing its program in the Latin American region, FAO is using findings of two FAO/UNICEF sponsored seminars on home economics education for Latin America,[8] held in Santiago, Chile and Mexico City, Mexico in 1964.

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[2] "Report of the Second European Home Economics Advisory Group," Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome, 1961.

[3] "A Study of Rural Condtions and of the Home Economics Extension Service in Austria," FAO Publication FAO/NU/HE/60/6; Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome, 1961.

[4] "Report of the European Seminar on Evaluation of Home Economics Extension Programs, Vienna, May 9-21,1960," Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome, 1965.

[5] "Report on the Meeting on Long-Term Planning in Home Economics in Europe, Rome, Nov. 3-13, 1964, Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome, 1965.

[6] "Report of the Fourteenth Session of the European Commission on Agriculture, Rome, May 17-22, Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome, 1965.

[7] Report of the Home Economics Advisory Meeting for the Near East, Cairo, 1959," FAO, Rome, 1960.

[8] "Report of the Two Home Economics Education Seminars for Latin America, Santiago, Chile, March,2-11,1964; Mexico City, Mexico, June 1-10,1964," FAO, Rome, 1964.

In the African region, a seminar on home economics programs for youth and adults,[9] was held at the University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Eastern Region, in 1963 under the joint sponsorship of the Home Economics Branch of the Nutrition Division and the Special Program of Agricultural Education and Training for Africa in the Rural Institutions and Services Division. This seminar is giving direction to the development of home economics activities in the French-speaking countries of Africa and the English-speaking countries of West Africa. The English-speaking countries of East Africa will participate in a similar seminar at the Royal College in Nairobi, Kenya in the fall of 1965 under the same sponsorship.

Inventories and surveys have made in the past and continue to make an important contribution to the development of FAO's program of home economics activities.

In preparation for the ad hoc meeting on long-term planning in home economics in Europe, an inventory was made of the work which had been carried out at the international level in this field and of the structures and working methods of home economics programs in the various countries of Europe.[10] In cooperation with the Working Party on Home Economics of the European Commission on Agriculture, the Home Economics Branch is compiling an inventory of those institutions in Europe which offer training in home economics at various levels and for various purposes.

At a recent FAO/UNICEF assisted national seminar, an inventory of home economics training and educational programs in Nigeria compiled by an FAO home economics expert was the basis for discussions on the present status and future development of home economics and nutrition.

At present the home economics officer for the Far East region is compiling an inventory of institutions providing training in home economics in South East Asia and the Far East.

Keister indicated in her article, "Planning for Home Economics Education in Africa,[11]" that as a result of the FAO African survey[12] the governments of FAO member countries are increasingly recognizing that a comprehensive approach to rural development must give full consideration to the important role of women. In 1961 an FAO/UNICEF consultant made a survey of programs of home economics education in 10 African countries.[13] This survey has proved a valuable guide to FAO and UNICEF in exercising their responsibilities toward programs in these countries. As part of the socio-economic survey of peasant agriculture being carried out at the request of the government of the Northern Region of Nigeria, FAO home economists are working with national workers to survey the role of women in farm and home life in the various provinces in the region. The government of the Region is using the findings included in the first phase of this survey[14] and the draft report of the first half of the second phase of the survey[15] in developing and strengthening its programs for rural people.

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[9] "Report on the Seminar on Home Economics Programs for Youth and Adults, Nsukka, Eastern Region of Nigeria, Sept. 1-18, 1963," FAO, Rome, 1965.

[10] "Background Study for a Program of Home Economics in Europe, 1964," FAO, Rome, 1965.

[11] Mary Elizabeth Keister, "Planning for Home Economics Education in Africa," Journal of Home Economics, 57:267, April, 1965.

[12] "The FAO African Survey: A Report on the Possibilities for African Rural Development In Relation to Economic and Social Growth, FAO, Rome, 1961.

[13] "Report on Home Economics in Africa," CEP Report No. 7, FAO, Rome, 1962.

FAO, the United Nations Special Fund, UNESCO, and the Inter-American Committee for Agricultural Development (CIDA), in cooperation with the governments of FAO member countries in the Latin American region, are making a country-by-country study of agricultural education, research, and extension in Latin America. An FAO home economist participated in the first survey conducted under this program, which has just been completed in Ecuador. Provisions are included for the active participation of home economists in the survey to be conducted in the other countries of the region. FAO anticipates that the findings of these surveys will serve as valuable guides in giving direction to the future development of programs in this region.

From time to time meetings of experts are convened to discuss and consider ways and methods for strengthening certain aspects of FAO's activities or for introducing new activities into FAO's program. During the next biennium FAO proposes to convene jointly with the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs such a meeting to consider ways of improving family life in newly urbanized parts of developing countries.

Field reports and terminal reports of home economists on country assignments include valuable suggestions for strengthening home economics programs.

Summary

In the preceding I have tried to describe to you FAO's responsibilities and goals, and the manner in which home economics is contributing toward the achievement of these goals. So long as FAO's home economics activities and the member countries maintain the philosophy of home economics created by Dr. Langworthy and reflected in the land-grant colleges and U.S. department of Agriculture so effectively during their developing era, we can be confident of progress. Only by creating programs that are based upon an understanding of and response to the needs of the country, and that bring together facts for creating home economics and making it a discipline worthy of serious study and practical application[16] can home economics contribute toward the fulfilment of the solemn pledge made by the participants at the inception of FAO in 1945. That pledge was, "To take up the challenge of eliminating hunger and malnutrition as the primary task of this generation, thus realizing basic conditions for peace and progress for all mankind."

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[14] "Home Economics Aspects of the FAO Socio-Economic Survey of Peasant Agriculture in Northern Nigeria," EPTA Report No. 1531, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome, 1962.

[15] "FAO Socio-Economic Survey of Peasant Agriculture in Northern Nigeria: Home Economics Aspects - Summary of Findings from Surveys, Ako, Ibeto, Maharfi and Malaam Maduri Districts, "First Draft - Restricted; Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome 1964.

[16] Swanson Pearl, "Charles Ford Langworthy - A Biographical Sketch," The Journal of Nutrition, 86; May 3, 1965.

In conclusion I quote from Director-General Sen's remarks to the 38th Eucharistic Congress in Bombay this last December:[17]

> I do not wish to go into the statistics of hunger at this session today. The seminar on "Food and Health" and the public meetings that have preceded the congress have, I believe, brought out the salient features of the world situation in regard to the production, distribution, and consumption of food. All I wish to say is that no statistics or quantitative analysis can truly reflect the tragedy that hunger and malnutrition inflict on more than one half of mankind, nor the colossal waste of our human resources and the mutilation and slow extinction of lives that could have been otherwise fruitfully and happily lived.

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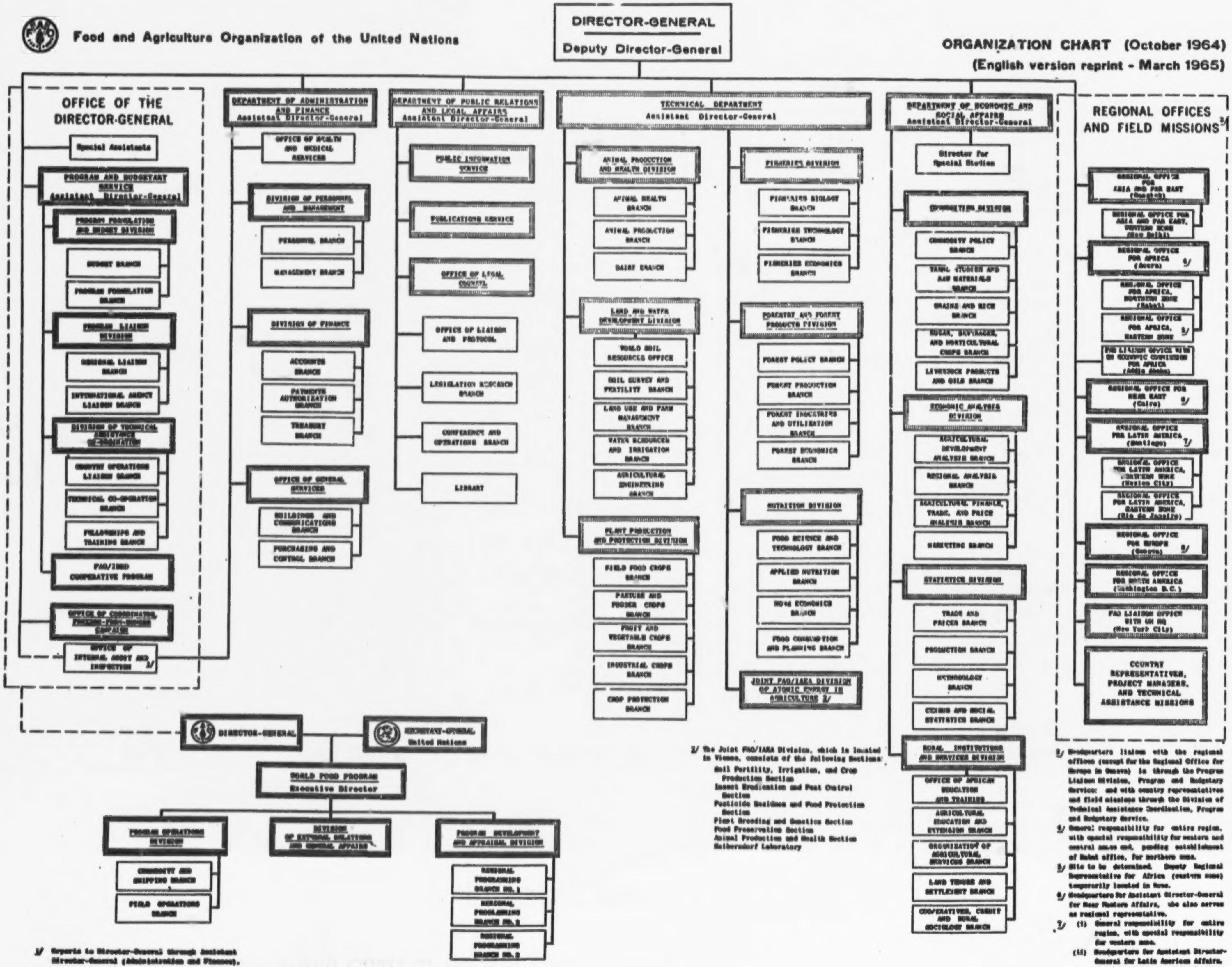
[17] Statement by Dr. B.R. Sen, Director-General of FAO to the Plenary Session of the 38th International Eucharistic Congress, Bombay, India, November 29, 1964.

APPENDIX A


Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
ORGANIZATION CHART (October 1964)
(English version reprint - March 1965)
DIRECTOR-GENERAL
Deputy Director-General
OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR-GENERAL
Special Assistants
PROGRAM AND BUDGETARY SERVICE Assistant Director-General
PROGRAM FORMULATION AND BUDGET DIVISION
BUDGET BRANCH
PROGRAM FORMULATION BRANCH
PROGRAM LIAISON DIVISION
REGIONAL LIAISON BRANCH
INTERNATIONAL AGENCY LIAISON BRANCH
DIVISION OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE CO-ORDINATION
COUNTRY OPERATIONS LIAISON BRANCH
TECHNICAL CO-OPERATION BRANCH
FELLOWSHIPS AND TRAINING BRANCH
FAO/IBRD COOPERATIVE PROGRAM
OFFICE OF COORDINATOR, FREEDOM-FROM-HUNGER CAMPAIGN
OFFICE OF INTERNAL AUDIT AND INSPECTION 1/
DEPARTMENT OF ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE Assistant Director-General
OFFICE OF HEALTH AND MEDICAL SERVICES
DIVISION OF PERSONNEL AND MANAGEMENT
PERSONNEL BRANCH
MANAGEMENT BRANCH
DIVISION OF FINANCE
ACCOUNTS BRANCH
PAYMENTS AUTHORIZATION BRANCH
TREASURY BRANCH
OFFICE OF GENERAL SERVICES
BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS BRANCH
PURCHASING AND CONTROL BRANCH
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC RELATIONS AND LEGAL AFFAIRS Assistant Director-General
PUBLIC INFORMATION SERVICE
PUBLICATIONS SERVICE
OFFICE OF LEGAL COUNSEL
OFFICE OF LIAISON AND PROTOCOL
LEGISLATION RESEARCH BRANCH
CONFERENCE AND OPERATIONS BRANCH
LIBRARY
TECHNICAL DEPARTMENT Assistant Director-General
ANIMAL PRODUCTION AND HEALTH DIVISION
ANIMAL HEALTH BRANCH
ANIMAL PRODUCTION BRANCH
DAIRY BRANCH
LAND AND WATER DEVELOPMENT DIVISION
WORLD SOIL RESOURCES OFFICE
SOIL SURVEY AND FERTILITY BRANCH
LAND USE AND FARM MANAGEMENT BRANCH
WATER RESOURCES AND IRRIGATION BRANCH
AGRICULTURAL ENGINEERING BRANCH
PLANT PRODUCTION AND PROTECTION DIVISION
FIELD FOOD CROPS BRANCH
PASTURE AND FODDER CROPS BRANCH
FRUIT AND VEGETABLE CROPS BRANCH
INDUSTRIAL CROPS BRANCH
CROP PROTECTION BRANCH
FISHERIES DIVISION
FISHERIES BIOLOGY BRANCH
FISHERIES TECHNOLOGY BRANCH
FISHERIES ECONOMICS BRANCH
FORESTRY AND FOREST PRODUCTS DIVISION
FOREST POLICY BRANCH
FOREST PRODUCTION BRANCH
FOREST INDUSTRIES AND UTILIZATION BRANCH
FOREST ECONOMICS BRANCH
NUTRITION DIVISION
FOOD SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY BRANCH
APPLIED NUTRITION BRANCH
HOME ECONOMICS BRANCH
FOOD CONSUMPTION AND PLANNING BRANCH
JOINT FAO/IAEA DIVISION OF ATOMIC ENERGY IN AGRICULTURE 2/
DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS Assistant Director-General
Director for Special Studies
COMMODITIES DIVISION
COMMODITY POLICY BRANCH
FIBRES, TEXTILES AND RAW MATERIALS BRANCH
GRAINS AND RICE BRANCH
SUGAR, BEVERAGES, AND HORTICULTURAL CROPS BRANCH
LIVESTOCK PRODUCTS AND OILS BRANCH
ECONOMIC ANALYSIS DIVISION
AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT ANALYSIS BRANCH
REGIONAL ANALYSIS BRANCH
AGRICULTURAL FINANCE, TRADE, AND PRICE ANALYSIS BRANCH
MARKETING BRANCH
STATISTICS DIVISION
TRADE AND PRICES BRANCH
PRODUCTION BRANCH
METHODOLOGY BRANCH
CENSUS AND SOCIAL STATISTICS BRANCH
RURAL INSTITUTIONS AND SERVICES DIVISION
OFFICE OF AFRICAN EDUCATION AND TRAINING
AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION AND EXTENSION BRANCH
ORGANIZATION OF AGRICULTURAL SERVICES BRANCH
LAND TENURE AND SETTLEMENT BRANCH
COOPERATIVES, CREDIT AND RURAL SOCIOLOGY BRANCH
REGIONAL OFFICES AND FIELD MISSIONS 3/
REGIONAL OFFICE FOR ASIA AND FAR EAST (Bangkok)
REGIONAL OFFICE FOR ASIA AND FAR EAST, WESTERN ZONE (New Delhi)
REGIONAL OFFICE FOR AFRICA (Accra) 4/
REGIONAL OFFICE FOR AFRICA, NORTHERN ZONE (Rabat)
REGIONAL OFFICE FOR AFRICA, EASTERN ZONE 5/
FAO LIAISON OFFICE WITH UN ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR AFRICA (Addis Ababa)
REGIONAL OFFICE FOR NEAR EAST (Cairo) 6/
REGIONAL OFFICE FOR LATIN AMERICA (Santiago) 7/
REGIONAL OFFICE FOR LATIN AMERICA, NORTHERN ZONE (Mexico City)
REGIONAL OFFICE FOR LATIN AMERICA, EASTERN ZONE (Rio de Janeiro)
REGIONAL OFFICE FOR EUROPE (Geneva) 8/
REGIONAL OFFICE FOR NORTH AMERICA (Washington D.C.)
FAO LIAISON OFFICE WITH UN HQ (New York City)
COUNTRY REPRESENTATIVES, PROJECT MANAGERS, AND TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE MISSIONS
DIRECTOR-GENERAL
SECRETARY-GENERAL United Nations
WORLD FOOD PROGRAM Executive Director
PROGRAM OPERATIONS DIVISION
COMMODITY AND SHIPPING BRANCH
FIELD OPERATIONS BRANCH
DIVISION OF EXTERNAL RELATIONS AND GENERAL AFFAIRS
PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT AND APPRAISAL DIVISION
REGIONAL PROGRAMMING BRANCH NO. 1
REGIONAL PROGRAMMING BRANCH NO. 2
REGIONAL PROGRAMMING BRANCH NO. 3

1/ Reports to Director-General through Assistant Director-General (Administration and Finance).

2/ The Joint FAO/IAEA Division, which is located in Vienna, consists of the following Sections:
Soil Fertility, Irrigation, and Crop Production Section
Insect Eradication and Pest Control Section
Pesticide Residues and Food Protection Section
Plant Breeding and Genetics Section
Food Preservation Section
Animal Production and Health Section
Seibersdorf Laboratory

3/ Headquarters liaison with the regional offices (except for the Regional Office for Europe in Geneva) is through the Program Liaison Division, Program and Budgetary Service: and with country representatives and field missions through the Division of Technical Assistance Coordination, Program and Budgetary Service.

4/ General responsibility for entire region, with special responsibility for western and central zones and, pending establishment of Rabat office, for northern zone.

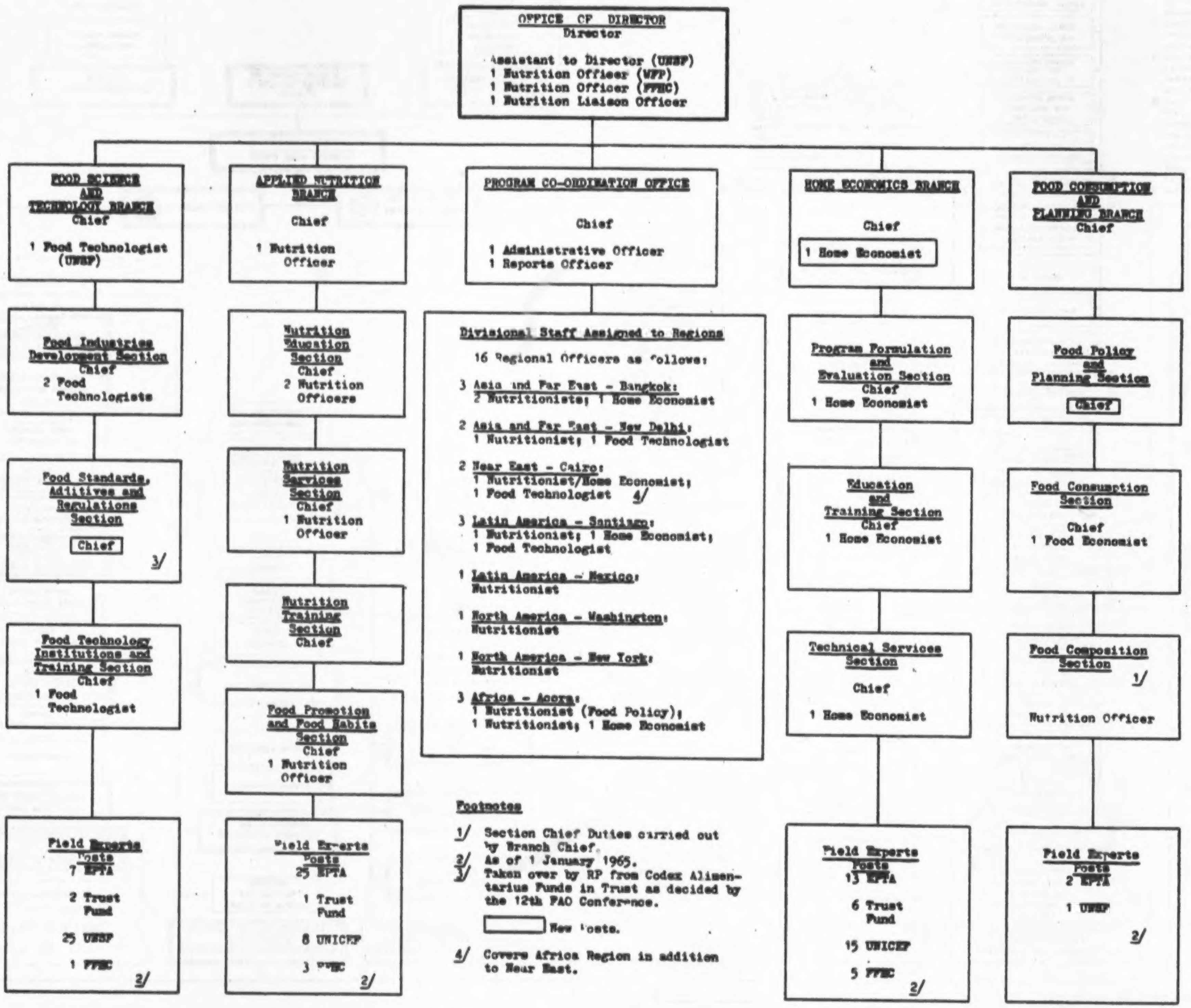
5/ Site to be determined. Deputy Regional Representative for Africa (eastern zone) temporarily located in Rome.

6/ Headquarters for Assistant Director-General for Near Eastern Affairs, who also serves as regional representative.

7/ (i) General responsibility for entire region, with special responsibility for western zone.
(ii) Headquarters for Assistant Director-General for Latin American Affairs, who also serves as regional representative.
(iii) The office for liaison with Organization of American States and other inter-American agencies is located

APPENDIX B

Organization and Staffing Chart of the Nutrition Division


OFFICE OF DIRECTOR
Director
Assistant to Director (UNSF)
1 Nutrition Officer (WFP)
1 Nutrition Officer (FFHC)
1 Nutrition Liaison Officer
FOOD SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY BRANCH
Chief
1 Food Technologist (UNSF)
Food Industries Development Section
Chief
2 Food Technologists
Food Standards, Additives and Regulations Section
Chief
3/
Food Technology Institutions and Training Section
Chief
1 Food Technologist
Field Experts Posts
7 EPTA
2 Trust Fund
25 UNSF
1 FFHC
2/
APPLIED NUTRITION BRANCH
Chief
1 Nutrition Officer
Nutrition Education Section
Chief
2 Nutrition Officers
Nutrition Services Section
Chief
1 Nutrition Officer
Nutrition Training Section
Chief
Food Promotion and Food Habits Section
Chief
1 Nutrition Officer
Field Experts Posts
25 EPTA
1 Trust Fund
8 UNICEF
3 FFHC
2/
PROGRAM CO-ORDINATION OFFICE
Chief
1 Administrative Officer
1 Reports Officer
Divisional Staff Assigned to Regions
16 Regional Officers as follows:
3 Asia and Far East - Bangkok:
2 Nutritionists; 1 Home Economist
2 Asia and Far East - New Delhi:
1 Nutritionist; 1 Food Technologist
2 Near East - Cairo:
1 Nutritionist/Home Economist;
1 Food Technologist 4/
3 Latin America - Santiago:
1 Nutritionist; 1 Home Economist;
1 Food Technologist
1 Latin America - Mexico:
Nutritionist
1 North America - Washington:
Nutritionist
1 North America - New York:
Nutritionist
3 Africa - Accra:
1 Nutritionist (Food Policy);
1 Nutritionist; 1 Home Economist
HOME ECONOMICS BRANCH
Chief
1 Home Economist
Program Formulation and Evaluation Section
Chief
1 Home Economist
Education and Training Section
Chief
1 Home Economist
Technical Services Section
Chief
1 Home Economist
Field Experts Posts
13 EPTA
6 Trust Fund
15 UNICEF
5 FFHC
2/
FOOD CONSUMPTION AND PLANNING BRANCH
Chief
Food Policy and Planning Section
Chief
Food Consumption Section
Chief
1 Food Economist
Food Composition Section
1/
Nutrition Officer
Field Experts Posts
2 EPTA
1 UNSF
2/

Footnotes

1/ Section Chief Duties carried out by Branch Chief.

2/ As of 1 January 1965.

3/ Taken over by RP from Codex Alimentarius Funds in Trust as decided by the 12th FAO Conference.

▭ New Posts.

4/ Covers Africa Region in addition to Near East.

APPENDIX C

FAO'S HEADQUARTERS AND REGIONAL OFFICE STAFF OF HOME ECONOMISTS

HEADQUARTERS:

Via delle Terme di Caracalla
Rome, Italy

Staff of the Home Economics Branch, Nutrition Division:

Coradel Hamilton, USA, Chief of Branch
Jane Ebbs, USA
Elsa Haglund, Sweden
Ingrid Janelid, Sweden (on two years' leave of absence for additional study)
Leonarda Jurado, Phillippines
Virginia Ortiz, USA (temporary assignment)
Helene Stevens, France
Matsuyo Yamamoto, Japan

REGIONAL OFFICES:

FAO Regional Office for Latin America
Casilla 10095, Santiago, Chile

Jean Audrey Wight, USA, Regional Home Economics Officer

FAO Regional Office for Africa
P.O. Box 1628, Accra, Ghana

Emmy Hookham, Norway, Home Economics Officer for the African Region

FAO Regional Office for the Near East
P.O. Box 2223, Cairo, United Arab Republic

Mona Doss, Egypt, Home Economics/Nutrition Officer for the Near East Region

FAO Regional Office for Asia and the Far East
Maliwan Mansion, Phra Atit Road, Bangkok, Thailand

Nita Soysa, Ceylon, Regional Home Economics Officer for Southeast Asia and the Far East.

APPENDIX D

FAO'S CURRENT ACTIVITIES IN THE AREA OF HOME ECONOMICS

AFRICA - NORTH

TUNISIA: To collaborate with development of programmes to establish pre-vocational training centers for young women.

Programme:	UNICEF
Home Economist:	Ivanica Vodanovich (New Zealand)

AFRICA - EAST

MADAGASCAR: To assist in expanding nutrition education in programmes of home economics; to collaborate in FAO/UNICEF programme of nutrition education and in government programme for training and promoting home economics.

Programme:	EPTA
Home Economist:	Eliane Laurens (France)

MALAWI:

1. To assist in Mothercraft/Homecraft project, UNBSA/FAO/UNICEF; to serve as director and teacher in Home Economics Training Center and to advise on establishment of other centers.

Programme:	EPTA
Home Economist:	Lila Engberg (Canada)

2. Associate experts to assist in home economics training programme.

Programme:	Associate Expert Scheme of Sweden
Home Economist:	Britta Sahlin (Sweden Anthonetta Risseuw (Netherlands)

3. Volunteer

Programme:	U.K. Volunteer Scheme
Home Economist:	Jenifer Down (U.K.)

AFRICA - EAST (Contd.)

MAURITIUS: Associate Home Economics Experts, in collaboration with the Government, to survey home life; to plan, carry out and evaluate training and extension programmes in rural home economics; to advise on all aspects of teaching home economics.

Programme: Dutch Associate Expert Scheme
Home Economist: Jantje Van Der Meer (Netherlands)

TANZANIA:

1. To serve as director of Home Economics Training Center in Musoma.

   Programme: FFHC
   Home Economist: (To be appointed)

2. To serve as rural home economics teacher at the Home Economics Training Center in Musoma.

   Programme: FFHC
   Home Economist: Kerstin Rydborg (Sweden)

3. To serve as clothing and textiles teacher at the home economics training center in Musoma.

   Programme: FFHC
   Home Economist: Ulla Bruzelius (Sweden)

ZAMBIA: To carry out family life surveys in three areas; to assist in the planning of home economics curricula and teaching of home economics in the community development staff training center; to assist the Ministry of Agriculture Education and Health in their programmes of nutrition and home economics.

Programme: UNICEF
Home Economist: Ida David (Phillippines)

AFRICA - WEST

GHANA: To assist at Legon University.

Programme: UNICEF
Home Economist: To be recruited by University.

LIBERIA: To assist in developing home economics extension service in Department of Agriculture and with training extension workers at university level.

Programme: UNICEF
Home Economist: Andrea Hiel (Netherlands)

AFRICA - WEST (contd.)

MALI

To assist with Department of Home Economics at Teacher Training College, Segou.

Programme: UNICEF
Home Economist: Marie Therese de la Riviere (France)

NIGERIA

1. To assist and advise in all aspects of training in Community Development Women's Staff Training Center and in conducting training; to conduct demonstrations to reveal all new techniques in home economics; to assist in organizing women to work together in training projects to help improve standards and levels of rural living.

   Programme: EPTA
   Home Economist: Wanda Montgomery (USA)

2. To assist Ministry of Agriculture in following up on survey and in utilizing survey findings, and on the organization of a home economics advisory service for rural women; to plan a training programme for rural home economics extension workers; to teach home economics courses for trainees preparing to work with women in rural areas.

   Programme: EPTA
   Home Economist: Constance Cooper (USA)

3. To assist in Nsukka University.

   Programme: UNICEF
   Home Economist: (To be recruited by the University)

4. To serve as adviser to the UNICEF Area Office on joint FAO/UNICEF programmes of home economics and nutrition; to give technical advice and guidance on programmes of home economics education; to inventory home economics/nutrition activities as a basis for identifying needs and resources to be used as guidelines to determine where assistance should be directed; to assist with the preparation of a national seminar if justified on the basis of national performance.

   Programme: UNICEF
   Home Economist: Millicent A Morton (U.K.)

SENEGAL:

To assist with and participate in training of rural home economics teachers in the training center; to teach home economics to girls and women in community development programmes in the villages.

Programme: Special Fund
Home Economists: Anne Lesteven (France)
Annette Taburet (France
Annie Helias (France)
Odile Verny (France)

SIERRA LEONE

1. To advise on matters pertaining to family nutrition and home development programmes and to assist with training and evaluation programmes.

Programme: EPTA
Home Economist: Jean Steckle (Canada)

2. To assist in development of home economics; to give technical guidance to family nutrition and home development programmes; to assist social development staff in carrying out their training programmes.

Programme: EPTA
Home Economist: Janet Asare (Ghana)

TOGO

To assist the government with home economics social services programme.

Programme: EPTA
Home Economist: Marie Louise Dammron (France)

AFRICA-CENTRAL

BURUNDI

To assist with a programme related to rural extension and animal husbandry.

Programme: EPTA
Home Economists: Nomiki Tsoukala (Greece)
Friede Schmutz (Switzerland)

CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC

Associate Expert to assist the Applied Nutrition Programme.

Programme: FFHC
Home Economist: Madeleine Dessibourg (Switzerland)

CHAD

To assist Ministry of Agriculture, Education and Health with programmes in nutrition and home economics; to assist in development of home economics activities, especially in foods and nutrition in a training center; to assist with ganizing school canteens; to develop a training of personnel for a future school of home economics.

Programme: UNICEF
Home Economist: Francoise Visserias (France)

ASIA AND THE FAR EAST

THAILAND

To promote and strengthen Community Development Department and assist in the Applied Nutrition pilot project.

Programme: EPTA
Home Economist: Joan Acton-Smith (U.K.)

LATIN AMERICA

COLUMBIA

To assist in developing a college level programme in home economics at University of Caldas, Manizales.

Programme: UNICEF
Home Economist: Carmen Peterson (USA)

ECUADOR

To assist Andean/Indian Programme for Mother and Child Health and applied nutrition programmes to asses needs for home economics at village level.

Programme: UNICEF
Home Economist: Virginia Ortiz (USA)

NEAR EAST

EGYPT, UAR

1. To develop courses in nutrition, institutional management, clothing and textiles.

   Programme: EPTA
   Home Economist: Gertrude Eastwood (USA)

2. To assist with development of a programme of practical assistance in nutrition education at University of Cairo and in developing the Home Economics Department.
   Programme: UNICEF
   Home Economist: Astrid Molander (Sweden)

NEAR EAST (contd)

EGYPT (contd)

3. To assist with instruction and training in nutrition education and the establishment of a cadre of home economists with special training for rural home economics.

Programme: UNICEF
Home Economist: Doris Baskerville (Canada)

4. To supervise training of students in hospitals and other institutions where they will learn nutrition and institutional management and acquire experience in planning and preparing food.

Programme: Associate Expert Scheme of Denmark
Home Economist: Ulla Jørgensen (Denmark)

JORDON

To establish nutrition and home economics training at Rural Women's Teachers College.

Programme: FAO/UNICEF
Home Economist: To be recruited locally

REGIONAL

EGYPT, U.A.R.

ARAB STATES TRAINING CENTER FOR EDUCATION FOR COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (ASFEC)

To assist the staff in developing all aspects of home economics education, supervising field training programmes for women trainees; to advise as requested on the development of country community development programmes.

Programme: EPTA
Home Economist: Elwya Elwy (Egypt)

MEXICO

REGIONAL FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION CENTRE FOR LATIN AMERICA (CREFAL)

To train students in the basic subject matter of home economics with special attention to extending programmes into rural areas; and to conduct surveys as a means of teaching students techniques.

Programme: EPTA
Home Economist: Hilda Segarra-Ortiz (USA)

EAST AFRICA - TANZANIA

To establish and maintain the sub-regional office, and to advise and assist on home economics and nutrition programmes in East Africa.

Programme:	Post financed by UNICEF
Home Economist:	Jeanne Bouman (Netherlands)

NORTH AFRICA - ALGERIA, TUNISIA, SPANISH SAHARA, MOROCCO

To study home economics in university programmes.

Programme:	UNICEF
Home Economist:	Jeanne Parisot (France)

SOUTH PACIFIC REGION - COMMUNITY EDUCATION TRAINING CENTER, FIJI

1. To assist course in home economics and nutrition to assist in the training course "Home economics for Community Work"; to organize and conduct a second course in that subject and to carry the major responsibility for teaching home economics and nutrition in the Training Center; to advise on future development of the project in the South Pacific Region.

Programme:	FFHC
Home Economists:	Margaret Crowley (Ireland) Elizabeth Eden (U.K.)

2. To assist French-speaking trainees at the Center.

Programme:	U.K. Volunteer Scheme
Home Economist:	Lindsay Chartres

APPENDIX E

THE COLLABORATION OF FAO WITH OTHER AGENCIES AND ORGANIZATIONS

FAO carries out its program of activities in close collaboration with other agencies of the United Nations concerned with the well-being of families. These agencies include the World Health Organization (WHO), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the International Labour Organization (ILO), the United Nation Bureau of Social Affairs (UNBSA), the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women, the United Nations Economic and Social Council, and the United Nations Committee and Interagency Working Group on Housing, Building and Planning. FAO gives technical supervision and frequently has administrative responsibility for projects jointly assisted by FAO and the United Nations Special Fund; by FAO United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), indeed, one or more of the other technical agencies of the United Nations also may be participants in these jointly assisted projects. In addition, there has been in existence since 1949 an "Expanded Program of Technical Assistance, called EPTA.

The Expanded Program of Technical Assistance is permanently supported by voluntary contributions from governments which are put into a central fund; EPTA was established as the result of a recognized need to provide direct assistance to less developed countries to help them improve their social and economic state. The funds for EPTA are administrated by the United Nations Technical Assistance Board (UNTAB) with the permanent secretarial in New York. The Board itself is composed of representatives of the United Nations, the International Atomic Energy Agency, and the Specialized Agencies of the United Nations family.

Although the expressed purpose of EPTA is to assist governments in helping themselves to improve their social and economic status, its assistance can only be given when requested by a government. Programs of work are developed biannually between the United Nations Technical Agencies (for example, FAO) and the individual governments. Assistance under EPTA does not include cash grants of loans but rather assistance by providing the services of experts, awarding fellowships, and organizing seminars, training centers and study groups. FAO is the largest single recipient of funds for implementing the EPTA projects. In the projects in which FAO is the recipient of funds, FAO recruits, briefs and supervises the technical experts; develops, administers, and supervises the program of study for recipients of fellowships; and organizes, administers and participates in such meetings and seminars as are requested. At the present 13 home economists representing eight nationalities are assisting with EPTA projects for strengthening nine national and three regional home economics programs.

Although great progress has and is being made under the EPTA programs, Governments have found that it represents only one aspect of vitally needed technical assistance. This recognition caused the establishment of a second assistance program known as United Nations Special Fund. The U.N. Special Fund concentrates on surveys of resources, establishment of vocational and advanced technical training institutes and industrial research centers. As in EPTA Governments pledge contributions to the central Special Fund. Under the joint sponsorship of ILO/FAO and the United Nations Special Fund a training center for rural home economics teachers has been established in Senegal. Upon completing the course these teachers provide community development workers and voluntary leaders of village groups with instruction in home economics. Four FAO home economists are assigned to the center.

At the same time that the FAO Conference in 1959 authorized the Director-General to make preparation for the World Food Congress in 1963 in Washington, D.C., it authorized an international Freedom From Hunger Campaign (FFHC). Unlike the Regular Program, EPTA, and the Special Fund whose sources of monies are governments, FFHC is supported by public sponsorship; national FFHC Committees non-government organizations and industry. However, the field projects are similar in many respects to those administrated by FAO by financed by EPTA and the Special Fund. In the South Pacific a Community Education Training Center has been established in Fiji under the joint sponsorship of FAO, the South Pacific Commission and the Government of Fiji with financial support from the Australian FFHC Committee. This center offers a nine months training course in home economics for community work to teachers, workers in community development, and leaders of volunteer women's groups in the South Pacific area.

The United Nations Children's Fund was created in 1946 as United Nations International Children's Emerging Fund to provide emerging assistance for children suffering from World War II activity. In 1950 its purpose was changed to provide for long range and continuing needs of children -- and in 1953 the United Nations General Assembly decided to continue its activity indefinitely and that the name become United Nations Children's Fund. UNICEF differs from the specialized agencies like FAO in that it is supported by voluntary contributions from governments, organizations, and individuals. UNICEF assists a country only when requested to do so by the government of the country and within terms of agreement between UNICEF and that government. UNICEF provides aid principally in areas of health services, nutrition, family and child welfare, education, vocational training and emerging aid. As UNICEF is not one of the United Nations specialized agencies its relationship with the specialized agencies is cooperative in nature -- via payment of FAO expert salaries for a project, procuring and providing supplies and equipment for a project, etc.

Because of the growing interest on the part of governments in projects calling for a more comprehensive or integrated approach to the needs of children, the specialized agencies of the United Nations are participating in an increasingly larger number of UNICEF assisted projects. The Home Economics Branch is participating in 13 of these at the present.

APPENDIX F

CURRENT ACTIVITIES OF THE HOME ECONOMICS BRANCH RESULTING FROM RECOMMENDATIONS MADE AT REGIONAL CONFERENCES

As the result of recommendations made at the Regional Conference held in 1962 the Home Economics Branch included the following Meetings and Seminars in the program of activities for the 1964-1965 biennium:

2-11 March 1964	Home Economics Education Seminar for Latin America, Santiago, Chile
1-10 June 1964	Home Economics Education Seminar for Latin America, Mexico City, Mexico
3-13 November 1964	Meeting on Long-Term Planning in Home Economics in Europe, Rome, Italy
22 August-8 September 1965	Seminar on Home Economics Programs for Youth and Adults, Nairobi, Kenya, East Africa
26 August - 4 September 1965	Seminar on Home Economics Extension in the Near East, Teheran, Iran

THE STATUS OF HOME ECONOMIC PROGRAMS IN THE AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

by Katharine Holtzclaw*

For more than 15 years, the Agency for International Development and its predecessor agencies have included home economics in technical and economic assistance programs. These home economics advisers, working with technicians from other fields such as education, health, agriculture, and engineering, have been able to assist many nations in their process of development. Schools from the nursery school to the university have been built and equipped. Funds for this purpose have come jointly from the national governments and the United States. More important than money has been the skilled advice of technicians in planning and furnishing these institutions. In addition, curriculum planning and teacher education have supplied great impetus to the formation of more modern programs. Not only has the technician helped with this training in her day-to-day work with the leaders, but thousands of teachers have been sent to the United States or some other suitable country to learn new and better methods. Government agencies have been influenced to put homemaking departments in most of the secondary schools, in the teachers colleges, and in a number of universities.

What has happened in the formal educational program has also taken place in more informal learning situations. An extension service, including home economics, rural development, and community development programs, has been instigated in most of the countries in which AID or its predecessor agencies have had missions. For example, thousands of women are now involved in a community development program in India. The inspiration for this project came when a group of leaders was sent to Japan by our mission to learn methods of working with rural women. Since soon after the war the work in Japan has flourished and continued to gain momentum. Mary Louise Collings was the adviser who helped the Japanese begin the extension program. The country now serves as a training situation for other countries.

Home economists have given help and guidance in establishing and improving institutions which teach home economics. From the beginning of the program in Europe, schools -- both primary and secondary -- were assisted. In the Netherlands the first college of home economics attached to a university in Europe was established, and a home economics research institute was equipped in Denmark. Home economics departments are now functioning on the university level in Brazil, India, Thailand, and Columbia. None of these institutions would ever have been started had it not been for the efforts of the U S. foreign aid home economics advisers in those countries.

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*Dr. Holtzclaw is home economics representative, Agency for International Development.

Under a contract with the Department of Home Economics of the University of Tennessee, assistance was given to six women's colleges to develop their home economics curricula to a level that would enable them to give a master's degree in at least one subject -- child-care, nutrition, etc.

The U.S. home economists helped in the organization of the Home Economics Association of India, a professional organization that has grown in influence. This has also been done in 12 other countries. The U.S Mission gave strong support to the establishment of about 30 home economics extension training centers by (1) providing special training for the principals of the centers in Japan and Hawaii, (2) providing the services of five home economists to assist in developing and operating the training centers, and (3) providing some training materials and facilities. The centers have trained 4,000 home economists now working at the village level.

Not only have farm girls and women learned many valuable lessons which have resulted in a better home and family life, but they have become aware of the accomplishments possible through cooperation. With the encouragement of their advisers they have advocated and actually helped to build schools, health centers, and community meeting places. They have organized school lunch programs, cottage industries, and village improvement campaigns. The homemaker has been given confidence in herself. She is emerging from "behind the veil" and taking her place as a citizen in her community.

Since 1961, there has been a gradual reduction of the "advisers" on AID mission staffs. This applies not only to home economists but to many specialists who were giving technical help.

In 1955 there were 47 home economists working with the governments of 21 countries. Three years later, after the college contract program came into effect, this number increased to 89 in 31 countries. Today, there are eight home economists employed on AID mission staffs and about the same number attached to contract teams. There may be a few more employed by the colleges and universities whose profession is not given in the documents sent to AID/Washington. In any case a great reduction has taken place in the number of home economists working in the countries of the world today.

The all-important questions are, Why has this happened? What can we do about it?

Before attempting to answer these questions, it is necessary to understand the ideas regarding home economics held by government leaders in many of the less developed countries, the types of problems faced by the women of the countries, and the objectives of the United States in sending home economists to a foreign nation.

It is the host government officials who request our government to give help in specific fields. They can request aid in home economics, refuse it, or advise that it be discontinued. Most of them do not know what home economics is or what it can do. Traditionally, too, in most of the countries, little attention has been given to any kind of education for women. If the men in leading positions are at all familiar with anything resembling home economics, it is the variety transplanted from Europe. This, in many cases, is impractical in the less-developed countries and the national authorities feel that a technician in such a discipline is unnecessary. Only if one of the officials has visited the United States and has seen what our homemaking education is and what it can do is an adviser voluntarily requested. However, there are some cases where a member of the AID mission staff, well informed on the subject and thoroughly convinced that home economics will be of great value to the people, has been able to persuade the national officials of their own need.

Almost all the problems of rural women in the developing countries are based on a lack of education. The way in which women meet their homemaking responsibilities results from tradition and superstition. Methods are handed down from mother to daughter. A lack of knowledge in regard to sanitation enters into many phases of life. The principles of nutrition are unknown. Home management plays no part in the consideration of daily duties. Women do certain things in certain ways because this is the manner in which they have always been done.

Improving a situation is difficult because of a human characteristic -- the lack of desire to change. There are several reasons for this resistance. Perhaps the most important is that learning to perform a task in a new way is hard. Moreover, with the extremely low incomes of most families in developing countries, experimentation may be expensive. They know that the old way worked; so why risk a new?

The home economist working with the homemaker in these countries must realize that education is a slow process. She must find out what the homemaker herself wants to learn, help her with this, and see that the project comes to a successful conclusion. After she gains the confidence of the homemaker she can lead her into attempting other more needed activities. Whatever is taught must be of practical value to the family and within its cultural pattern and income limitations.

With these problems of the homemaker in mind, let us consider the guidelines which the United States government has set up. After a request for a home economics adviser is received, she is selected and processed. Then she is brought into Washington for orientation. There she is given certain general objectives toward which to work. Among these, are the following:

1. To try to improve the standard of living in the country
2. To train leaders as quickly as possible to do the work she herself is doing
3. To understand and respect the national culture
4. To teach people to do more effectively the things they are doing already
5. To base programs on the needs and resources of the people
6. To develop community spirit and action
7. To help select and orient young women to go for study in the U. S. or some other suitable country
8. To help interested countries establish or improve needed educational institutions
9. To make friends for the United States

Factors Influencing the Home Economics Technical Assistance Program

There are a number of factors influencing the situation of our home economics advisers in the missions. These factors may vary from country to country but some are quite common. Those of us who have worked with the foreign aid program over an extended period feel that in order to make any kind of evaluation of the home economist's work it is necessary to go back to the objectives she was given before she began. To one who has seen the "before and after" of a home economist's tour, it is quite evident that the standard of living has been improved. This is true especially in relation to sanitation, child care, home improvement, and community living.

National leaders have been well-trained both by working with the American specialist from day to day and through study trips to other countries. This success is amply proven by the fact that in a number of countries, though the specialist has left, high standards of work are being carried on by the national staffs. Most specialists have been interested in the culture of the country and have made a great effort to understand it. Giving help to people in their traditional tasks has been done, to a certain extent.

Many of our home economics advisers, however, know little about teaching gardening, poultry keeping, the care of small animals or even such things as soap making or feeding babies without milk or fruit juice. One of the greatest shortcomings has been in the planning of programs on the basis of needs and available resources of the people. Instead of doing this they are likely to plan their programs with United States standards in mind. This is true not only with programs but with teaching equipment.

Women in countries with no tradition of working together are now cooperating on a number of projects. Community clean-up campaigns and village beautification are evident in many countries. Thousands of young women have been selected to come to the United States and other suitable countries in order to learn to do their jobs better at home. The home economist has had a large share in this effective project.

The work of our specialists has generally been highly worthwhile and within the range of economic possibility for the people to carry out. Countless women are now feeding their families better because they have learned to dry fruits and vegetables. Many are now making simple clothing for their families, doing their cooking on mud stoves instead of three stones, and their laundry with the wooden washing machine. Against one over-elaborately equipped laboratory, there are thousands of simple teaching situations which are in keeping with the economic and cultural conditions of the nation. You who will teach, select, and orient the home economics advisers of the future -- you need to know the problems and help the young women who go out to meet them. They will need both understanding and ingenuity in selecting projects and methods of work.

The Challenge to Home Economics Leaders in Colleges of the United States

According to the most valid reports, there will be few if any home economics advisers on our mission staffs of the immediate future. When any are sent to work in the countries they probably will be sent through the college contracts, or through contracts with other government agencies (U.S. Department of Agriculture, the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Department of Interior, etc.) If the leaders in our colleges and agencies do not realize their opportunity and responsibility in this matter, women of the less developed world will be blocked in their progress toward better home and family living.

In order to fulfill this obligation -- which is really one of international importance -- it is necessary that you:

1. Help your own staff members develop a deep understanding and conviction that practical home economics, even though the teaching facilities be quite primitive, is just as much home economics and can uphold as high standards as any we teach in the United States.

2. Give the survey committee which goes out to a country a full understanding of the values of home economics to the country and stress the fact that this special type of education is of great importance. It should be considered both in their survey and in their recommendations. Better still, get yourself appointed on such committees. If this is not possible, remember that the members, when the final agreement is reached, will be in consultation with officials of the host government. They may not realize the importance of home economics. A statement listing its values is desirable. This paper, whose virtue will be its brevity and clarity, should be written by a group of home economists working together. One person alone will give her own ideas, but this document should be a pooling of many ideas.

3. Teach the young women under your supervision what I will call the "basics" of home economics. These principles, if valid, should apply to any situation -- not just to conditions in the United States. Along with that, teach them how to see and evaluate needs and how to plan all programs so that these needs can be met or partially met.

4. Realize that men of the United States, no matter how well educated still do not understand nor appreciate our philosophy of home economics. We, the leaders in this field, are entirely responsible for this fact. In the early days of struggle to secure a "place" for home economics, we realized the importance of "educating" the men in our chosen field. Even now, when they do have some appreciation for what we are trying to do, they being as human as the rest of us, feel that the things they are most interested in are the more important.

We must help our staff members, our students, and the men and women with whom we come in contact understand the importance of home and family living. It has made a contribution to our country and it will help homemakers throughout the world take their places in the economic and social structure of their nations. It will assist them in training their children to become stronger and better citizens in a changing world.

Summary

The home economist has made some mistakes but she has met the aims of her government well. Certainly, she leaves the homemakers in the country in which she has worked better able to solve their problems, better able to care for their families.

What can we do to increase the dwindling ranks of home economists overseas? Leaders in home economics in the colleges of the United States will have the opportunity to see that advisers in their field are included in all college contracts signed. They can do this by influencing the members of the survey team which goes out to the countries to discuss needs with the leaders of the host government. They can help the situation greatly by the type of training given their students and by selecting and orienting them with great care before they leave. They also have an opportunity to give men and women a better understanding and appreciation of homemaking education. I am sure they will meet this challenge!

THE GROWING NEED FOR HOME ECONOMICS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

by Michael Chiappetta*

We are coming to find that even where development is thought to be a magnificent and worthy goal, there are plenty of stresses and tensions in the developing society. Very soon in the development process the leaders and the people of a developing country discover that the new conditions of modernization require new attitudes and values, new skills, and new social-economic relationships among its people and between the country and its former friends and enemies. At first glance this does not seem to be a particularly stressful situation. However, new attitudes and values, new skills, and new socio-economic relationships always imply a modification, if not a rejection, of old attitudes and values, old skills and old socio-economic relationships.

My way of looking at home economics in the development process is too look at the peculiar and particular role home economics can play within the wide range of new needs facing a developing country and within the framework of resources available to the developing country to meet its new requirements. Perhaps the best way to look at home economics in developing countries is to look at home economics in a developing country and, more specifically, in an internationally sponsored project in home economics. For example, let us consider a project which is presently being executed by a large international organization:

International Agency ABC

Country X

Home Economics Project

1. The aim of this project is to assist in raising the living standards of the population through a program of home economics education dealing with the family as a socio-economic unit. Stress would be laid on nutrition, child care, homecraft, hygiene, the management of family resources, and family relations.

2. The government considers the teaching of home economics to be of paramount importance as girls coming out of school will have a significant role to play in the national effort to raise standards of living. It is anticipated that the National Union of Women of Country X will, as one of its functions, assist in the teaching of home economics to other less fortunate women.

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*Dr. Chiappetta is director, Multilateral Policy Planning Staff, Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, U.S Department of State.

3. Teachers' colleges have an enrollment of 2,350 students in 1965; some 800 of the students are girls. The secondary schools have an enrollment of 22,300 of whom about 5,400 are girls.

My experience in development tells me that on a country-to-country basis and in the international field, this project is rather typical of the language and thought which goes into both the development process and home economics. Here I would like to take the opportunity to note some key words which are related to home economics and which illuminate the particular role which home economics is asked to play in many developing countries.

I call your attention to the following phrases:

1. The family as a socio-economic unit
2. Family relations
3. Girls coming out of school will have a significant role to play in the national effort to raise standards of living
4. The National Union of Women will assist in the teaching of home home economics to other less fortunate women
5. Teachers colleges with 2,350 in 1965, 800 of whom are girls
6. Secondary schools with 22,300 students, of about 5,400 are girls

My new, biased reading of some parts of the description of the project now explicitly reveals that international agencies and governments conducting development programs see home economics as an activity specifically designed for girls and women. In my mythical country X it is apparent that the intent is to improve and expand the teaching of the specific content of home economics to an increased number of girls for a longer period in order to produce a higher level of skills and to broadcast them to the women of country X for better discharge of "womanly" roles.

The point I am trying to make here is that country X has made a perhaps fatal error (certainly a costly one) in assuming that home economics is particularly and peculiarly related to women's role and that, obversely, the role of women in the development of country X should be concerned predominantly with home economics. As you can see, I am moving towards the thesis that development exacts so many requirements from the developing country that the only hope of success is that the country will use its meager resources, both capital and human, in an optimum fashion in order to hasten and complete the process. This calls for a close examination of the roles and choices open to the population, to a careful inventory of skills and behavior required by society and the most effective distribution of the skills to the most critical problems. Another way of saying what I am thinking here is that in the development process we can no more enjoy the luxury of thinking that home economics is for girls only than the luxury of believing that law or engineering or medicine are for men only.

Let me read to you from some yet unpublished, and perhaps unpublishable, thinking that is being done in an international organization:

1. Current changes affecting the social, economic, and political aspects of life throughout the world involve women even more than men, in new situations and thus they cannot escape the challenge of adjusting to them. Women appreciate the security given them by familiar patterns of life that they know and understand. They tend, therefore, to be conservative and this often makes them opponents of changes the implications of which they cannot fully comprehend. On the other hand, women who had had access to education and through this to an understanding of new opportunities and responsibilities both for themselves as individuals and as members of society, appreciate to what extent their contribution is limited by social law and custom. They, therefore, want education in its many forms to be extended to all members of their sex and to be able to participate more fully and at all levels of seniority, authority, and decision-making in fields of work and activity traditionally open mainly to men. They recognize that this change in the balance of relationships between men and women will call for readjustments in thinking and practice by both men and women and that this will involve not only more educational opportunities for women but a rethinking of the content and orientation of education for men and women alike.

2. Rapid industrialization and the paramount importance of economic development are factors common to all countries, varying only in degree and pace. A more effective use of woman-power and trained woman-power is an essential element in this development. Woman has always played a dual role in society but the first claim on her which she readily accepts has been her home and family, whether she has been married or single. The emergence of the economically independent spinster and the example she has given of what women can do when educated and trained, in contributing to the economic demands of society, have illustrated what can be expected from women as a whole. This presents problems of priorities as well as of double loyalties. The economic incentive to involve women more effectively in development calls for changes in the amount and the nature of vocational, technical, and professional education; for the provision of new social services; for the revision of the legal position of women; for revised labor codes; for replanned social security and for an acceptance by society that these are essential and right if women are to meet the new demands made upon them.

3. Rapid political development and the emergence of new nations have not only provided opportunities for women to participate effectively in public life but owe not a little to them. This incentive of woman action for the achievement of nationhood has proved, in many cases, stronger than the inhibitions against cooperation on equal terms with

> women. Thus in some rapidly developing countries, women are taking their place side by side with men more fully than in countries with a different political history. The consolidation of this equality and partnership, as political independence is established, should be able to provide an example and an incentive for similar developments in countries where this is not yet achieved.
>
> We believe that sound development for communities and countries as well as full and satisfying lives for individual men and women, can only come from their equal partnership in all the activities, responsibilities and benefits of modern society. To ensure this, the climate of opinion throughout the world in all communities, however small or remote, has to be such as to recognize this partnership in equality among men and women and to accept it as the goal of society and of individuals in it.
>
> Education in its widest sense will be the basis of such a program. There is hardly a part of the world where plans for educational development do not take into account that half of the population that comprises women and girls. There is not as general an understanding and acceptance of the effects of this extension of education on the outlook and aspirations of women.[1]

With this general concept of development in mind, let us return to my list of phrases and see how they color the role of a home economics effort in country X.

The Family as a Socio-Economic Unit. You can be quite sure that no one in country X is seriously studying the family as socio-economic even though development is going to revolutionize the economic role of groups of people now called families. The very size of the economic unit and the complete range of social relationships which are probably considered sacred in country X in a long tribal or even sophisticated history will have to be studied, maybe "agonizingly."

Family Relations. You can also be certain that there has not been a serious investigation of what alternatives there are to the present family relations which exist in country X. In country X, as in every country of the world, there is a built-in conservatism regarding the family structure. Usually this is buttressed and firmly supported by religious rites and doctrine which fight strongly against the establishment of new relationships between the parents, between children and their parents, and among the children. In many countries the patterns are protected not only by customs but by law. My mythical country X, which now is ready to invest in home economics education, is probably far from ready to change the basic pattern of human relations and the socio-economic pattern of families which comprise it.

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[1] Since this material is being prepared for publication and as such is still being negotiated, no attribution is made.

Girls Coming Out of School. Country X sees its girls leaving school with a significant role to play in raising the standards of living through concerns for nutrition, childcare, homecraft, hygiene, and the management of family resources. I think it's not an accident that this language does not say, "among other roles" or "as a part of the total contribution which women make to society." The most startling thing about this particular home economics project is that apparently boys will not be permitted to participate in it. Psychologists have a word which describes the reaction to discrimination against women in all other vocational choices. Is it "compensation"? Or "compensatory discrimination"?

National Union of Women. It is seen that the National Union of Women will assist less fortunate women to improve the teaching of home economics. I find it typical of developing countries, and perhaps of the developed countries too, to imply that women rarely teach men anything. Anyone who has ever watched a society realizes that this notion is "poppycock." It suffices to say here, however, that country X clearly and definitely assigns, if not relegates, the concern for home economics to its girls and women.

The statistics are perhaps the most outstanding element of this project. You will remember that, according to the home economics project description in country X, 2,530 students are in teachers' colleges in 1965. Of these 2,350 only 800 are girls. In the secondary schools there is an enrollment of 22,300, of whom only 5,400 are girls. For me, as a development technician, it is clear that the highest priority for country X is going to be, in education, putting into better balance the total educational system. I think this is not the place to go through a whole list of countries and point out to you that in most parts of the world girls and women are severely discriminated against in access to education and in access to vocational and professional life. It is appropriate to note here that, in the face of this discrimination, the assignment of home economics exclusively to girls merely reinforces the discrimination pattern.

It seems to me that country X needs to do two things at this point: First, it must open secondary schools to at least twice as many girls in a variety of vocational fields; and second, it must open home economics to boys. Let me take up the first point in this way. Let me read to you from a statement of development needs found in the United Nations system:

1. The rapid development of compulsory and, as soon as possible, free education to common levels for both boys and girls.
2. Planned programs of adult education and public information designed to create the climate of opinion necessary to accept women on terms of equality in all aspects of life and work and responsibility.
3. The revision of legislation and customary practice in so far as they affect the equality of men and women in private, public, and political life.

4. Special allocations of money and facilities for the education and training of women during the decade so that they can make up for their late start. This involves a greater percentage than usual of girls leaving school having access to further education and training. It also demands the provision for adult women either to take initial professional or vocational training or to have in-service training to refresh them for work to which they return after marriage responsibilities, or to carry their original training to a higher level or to prepare for new careers. Implicit in this are several factors. Training must be provided near the homes of the women and on a part -time basis if necessary or at residential centers with provision made for the care of children through the appropriate social services,and adequate allowances must be given to spare anxiety. The poverty of many developing countries,in the face of the varied and overwhelming demands made on them in all directions, makes the aspect of education a most suitable field for the cooperation of United Nations and its resources, bilateral country programs, and the foundations and corporations.

5. A lavish provision of scholarships for women in fields where their services are particularly needed and an access on favorable terms to educational facilities outside their countries where these are appropriate.

6. Full use should be made of women as specialists both by their own countries and by assistance agencies.

7. Encouragement for women to take up the teaching profession through the provision of training, through specialization in the teaching of subjects to the highest level, especially mathematics and science, through specialization in the teaching of young children but accompanied by a proper recognition of this specialization in conditions of service, salary, status and seniority, through a study of affective ways of using part-time service of married women teachers as a benefit to society and not as a concession to them.

8. Opening up education and training whereby women prepare for work hitherto mainly the preserve of men especially in engineering, industry, banking, commerce, insurance, and in management generally.

9. As influence depends to so great an extent upon seniority, salary and status, agencies and organizations particularly concerned with assisting women to take this equal part in society should set the example by appointing women with the suitable qualifications, personality, and experience to posts of responsibility where they are concerned with decision-making in general -- not just in aspects affecting women-- as a matter of deliberate policy.

10. Coeducation should be encouraged as a principle and developed wherever girls would not be held back by it.

11. Social education among boys and girls in day schools and boarding schools should prepare them for their role of mutual acceptance in the relationship of equality in home, work, public life, and leisure.

12. As change comes later and more leisurely in rural communities and as traditions die hard, there is a need to provide social or community education directed to women on their own so that they can experience and absorb the rejuvenating effects of literacy and the uses to which it can be put, and new skills and knowledge.

13. The need to relate professional, technical, and vocational education especially for girls to known and future occupational outlets and thus avoid the danger of educating for unemployment.

14. More effective use could be made of international resources for improving the status and opportunities of and for women if there was a planned, closely coordinated effort for this program between the various U.N. Specialized Agencies -- UNESCO, ILO, Bureau of Social Affairs, UNICEF, and the Status of Women Commission.

15. Above all, there is a need to create an informed public opinion upon the position of women in society and the ways of securing her full and educated participation together with an understanding that this is not a campaign designed to give one sex an advantage over another but to enable both to make their complementary and equal contribution to society.[2]

Fifteen points may seem excessive to explain why and how girls and women must achieve a functional equality with boys and men, but I am sure all of you are aware of the enormous pressures and prejudices which operate to maintain traditional patterns. The second point I am making may be stated more simply since the power to bring it into being rests with specialists who have good standing. In most countries home economists are specialists who operate in a restricted area. In a sense they have been driven into a compound and achieve their status and rewards within the "compound mores." In my example of the home economics project in country X, I think home economists should stress not only the country needs for improved nutrition, child care, homecraft, hygiene, management of family resources, and family relations but stress that these functions are not the exclusive property of girls and women. They might well stress that there can be little improvement if boys and men do not learn in these areas. Finally, home economists should lend their strength to the general insistence that young people should be trained in areas in which they have an interest, and have capacity and potential; in countries which have meager resources for training purposes, it would be imperative that boys and girls be carefully chosen to enter vocations which are critical for the development process.

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[2] Preliminary draft of a document for the Human Rights Commission, United Nations, June 1965.

If I try to pull all these thoughts together, I come out like this:

1. Development makes serious and disturbing demands on developing societies.

2. Development usually requires far-reaching changes in attitudes, values, and behavior.

3. In developing countries where there is usually a serious shortage of trained manpower, rigid priorities must be applied to select and train the most capable people for the most critical jobs. Few developing countries if any can afford the luxury of not considering women in this selection process.

4. All job specialities must compete against the development priorities of a country. Investment in home economics, therefore, must satisfy clear development needs. In addition, it must not only reinforce old sterotypes of vocational choices for men and women, but it might serve as a pressure to change cultural definitions of male/female roles and add to the pressures to free single women to enter all vocations with men.

The general conclusion I would present is that home economics has a unique role to play in development, a role which goes well beyond its direct contribution related to the well-known skills and knowledge it embraces. The special contribution of home economics will help to break down ancient and rigid discrimination patterns which deprive women of the opportunity to participate fully in their society. This special contribution can be made, however, only if home economists forego the luxury of their own restrictions and only if home economists lend their weight to the campaign to release women for other vocational choices.

OUTLOOK FOR THE FUTURE OF INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMS OF HOME ECONOMICS

by Lura M. Odland*

It is a pleasure to comment on the outlook for international programs of home economics.

In reviewing comprehensive developments myself, earlier, and with conferees here this week, the following three considerations have seemed pertinent:

The Need for Commitment

First, it is evident that progress has been and will be achieved in direct and sure relationship to the sense of importance and commitment of the countries involved.

A sense of personal commitment is especially needed in programs of intercultural understanding -- and the sense of intelligent and knowing commitment far exceeds or is basic to the importance of monetary or special interest concerns. In home economics, which involves so many intangibles, a special kind of intense, informed interest is essential.

From some circles we have learned the definition of instant programs as -- "Add money and stir."

It is true that in many undertakings the process of adding money and stirring can produce some good and beneficial results. Thoughts and aspirations combined with available resources make this possible. However, as we have learned from many of our speakers this week, international programs basically require deeply cultivated understandings.

The sense of commitment in international programs in home economics must stem from belief on the part of participating countries in the significant contribution which such programs may make to economic development and social progress, a belief held not only by the academic circles of such countries but also in their business and governmental circles. (Most frequently this involves continuing commitment through many changes of personnel, including changes of students, faculty, and governmental administrations.)

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This area was discussed in our last conference. However, perhaps there is much more which can be undertaken toward knowledgeable understanding of the contributions of home economics programs to economic development and social progress. This week Mr. Stucky,[1] Miss Mackinnon,[2] Dr. Holtzclaw,[3] Miss Drinker[4] and Dr. Heft[5] have provided special incentives to us for this.

The development of knowledgeable commitment has been the starting point for many of our more successful programs (as exemplified by the late Dr. Lydia Roberts in the home economics program in Puerto Rico). Perhaps this is the primary area for strengthening foundations for continuing and developing programs.

The Need for Cooperation and Coordination

Secondly, our outlook for international home economics programs is completely dependent on continued and intensified cooperation and coordination in our undertakings.

Our 1963 conference was held in response to the evident need for cooperative planning and development. This, our 1965 conference, has reaffirmed our convictions. All of us are critically aware of the fact that we in home economics, perhaps as much as in any other field, need to use all of our resources wisely and well, on a defined priotity basis. This can best be accomplished through cooperative planning and development. Fortunately, as our experiences increase and our outlook for the future becomes more realistic, we can predict with better success how we might provide together for the judicious use of resourses. We are profiting from such concern in long-range planning for home economics programs of research, teaching, extension as supported by individuals, state and government agencies, and private foundations in this country. The benefit of such long-range planning in international programs is increasingly evident. Much can be accomplished in home economics in conferences such as this and in contingent planning and action.

In home economics we have or will have specifically, the guidelines of our 1963 and 1965 conferences -- and, the increasing involvement in coordination by our professional, academic and governmental home economics agencies and organizations.

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[1] William G. Stucky -- who is educational leader, Center for Agricultural and Economic Development -- in floor discussion made the point that the acceptance of international home economics programs will be directly related to the extent to which such programs are linked up to the solution of overriding national problems. He said this is particularly true in nations with scarce resources.

[2] See paper of C.Frances MacKinnon, "Developing Economic Programs Abroad -- Latin America," on pages 125-30 of this report.

[3] See paper of Katherine Holtzclaw, "The Status of Home Economics Programs in the Agency for International Development," on pages 209-14 of this report.

[4] Gertrude R. Drinker -- who is program specialist, Foreign Training Division, International Agricultural Development Service, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture--participated in a panel discussion on internationalizing home economics programs in the U.S. See pages 179-185 of this report for a summary of the panel.

[5] See paper of David Heft, "Influences of Latin American Education Affecting International cooperation in university Curriculum Development, on page 85 of this report.

The international program of work of the American Home Economics Association, which has just been reviewed by the association in Atlantic City, encourages cooperative planning.

Also, in special conferences such as this, we see the result of cooperative planning among and between all sponsoring groups for international programs.

The International Rural Development Office, under the capable direction of Dr. Elton L. Johnson, has done much to promote coordination among the member institutions of the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges and between these and the various governmental and private agencies and foundations. In fact, it was through Dr. Johnson's office that much was developed in the planning of this conference. I should mention also the excellent informative international newsletter developed by Dr. Johnson.

We have been particularly fortunate to have had summarized for us, during this conference, the increasing coordination of programs of governmental agencies. A very special effort is being made to include home economics in many programs--and as an example I would like to mention, most recently, the Eleventh Conference on Foreign Agricultural Training Affairs sponsored by the new International Agricultural Development Service, in which Miss Drinker has played a prominent role. Proceedings of this meeting will be available soon. Also, I would like to mention the recent report you have received from the Joint Committee on Education for Government Services of the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges and the U.S. Department of Agriculture. Tremendous strides have been made by this committee and its member institutions and agencies in developing not only policies but also the mechanics for cooperative international programs.

The Need for Judicious Use of Resources.

As the third item, which is, in fact, contingent on cooperative planning, our outlook for the future depends upon the judicious use of our resources with, again, flexible list of priorities. For example, each of us at this conference is concerned with the problem of personnel and the extent to which appropriate personnel can be shared in international program planning. We have considered at length the kinds of persons needed, the experienced personnel available, and the ways in which appropriate personnel might be recruited and prepared for undertakings in other countries. We do have under way in this country some significant plans whereby needs of developing countries for personnel from this country may be met on a cooperative basis by business, academic institutions, and government agencies. Our outlook for expanding numbers of experienced home economists for higher educational programs in this country is not propitious. Our conference has indicated a strong concensus for a brighter outlook for international programs when the programs emphasize graduate training for those who would return to the developing countries to expand home economics training programs there. We have known this; now we seem to really be considering "working ourselves out of business" in the planning stages of our programs.

There is apparently no bias against women in the home country -- or in the United States in the selection of students from other countries for higher education study programs abroad. In a country where only 10 to 20 per cent of the women are in programs of higher education, we would expect many who come to this country to study to be of the "governing elite" in their native countries. However, through the training and commitment of the "governing elite," perhaps initially effective programs may be developed in native countries which may then have support for reaching more and larger segments of the population.

It would seem that with a favorable commitment on the part of this and developing countries to the importance of home economics and its contribution to economic development and social progress, the need for personnel can in times ahead be met primarily through the developing or "newly independent" country.

Resources may be primarily concerned with people, but also some minimal requirements of facilities and equipment need definition. For effective training programs in this country some items of equipment and materials are necessary. However, we now recognize that for maximum effectiveness in the developing country, perhaps facilities, materials and equipment are best defined and developed by those most closely involved in and native to the developing program. Advice and counsel can be helpful. However, as indicated by many here, those most directly involved in the long-range program promotion are perhaps in the best position to know what is essential in an individual program. Dr. Holtzclaw eloquently emphasized this earlier at this conference.

We have learned that with equipment as with curricula and reference materials, there is no comprehensive "check-off" list. The same is true of research, as was discussed in detail here earlier. Our outlook depends on professional commitment and aspirations of those who have the long-range vision and continuing responsibilities for developing programs in their respective countries.

In considering the outlook for the future, our program was planned to cover problems and potentialities. It is apparent that these may involve to an increasing extent: (1) a sense of commitment by academic, business, and governmental institutions and agencies to the significant contribution of home economics programs in the economic development and social progress of the country; (2) cooperative and coordination of all undertakings and programs with recognition and development of mutual interests, (3) the judicious recognition and intelligent development of ever-increasing resources. And, I cannot help but add (from our personal experiences detailed in the first 1963 conference report and University of Tennessee International Program report, and in behalf of many comments here) -- (4) perspective, persistence, patience, and realistic, constructive optimism!

POTENTIALS AND CAUTIONS IN DEVELOPING PROGRAMS IN AFRICA

by Helen G. Canoyer*

Introduction

I was asked by the committee which planned this excellent conference to speak on the subject, "Potentials and Concerns in Developing Programs in Africa." I do not feel qualified to speak on such a broad topic. I therefore would like to narrow it to Ghana, which is the only African country where we have a project under way. It is, of course, possible to apply a good many of the statements which I shall make regarding Ghana, to other sub-Sahara, English-speaking, African countries. However, each of the African countries has unique characteristics and therefore I would be more comfortable were I to address myself to the topic "Potentials and Cautions in Developing Programs in Ghana."

Background

First of all I should like to give you some background on Ghana as a country, and then on our own project. Ghana has a long educational tradition. European traders and missionary groups established schools in the coastal settlements as long ago as the 17th century. Other educators began working in the first half of the 19th century under the auspices of other missionary groups. Students of the early days in Ghana point out that although British officials were interested in education at the start, it was not until Great Britain formally annexed the Gold Coast (as Ghana was called at that time) in 1874, that this interest became a formal one. The first education ordinance was drawn up in 1882, and this provided for a greater degree of uniformity than had hitherto existed in the management of mission schools. It established a system of government financial assistance, and it provided for inspection of schools to insure compliance with government standards. It is entirely possible that Ghana leads all of the other African countries in its long established interest in education.

Some scholars indicate that there was early recognition by Great Britain that colonies might eventually have some sort of home rule and that this dictated Great Britain's policy in Ghana at an earlier date than that of any other colonial power in Africa. British educational policy nonetheless did not think to educate an African ruling class. The British recognized the chiefs as the ruling class. The efficacy of the chief rested on not bringing him too far, or at least not too rapidly into the modern world. However, once education was introduced into a colonial territory, the process could not be stopped or contained. Even early in the period of British rule there were talented Africans who became truly educated and who appeared to be equally at home in both worlds -- the western and their own indigenous culture. It was a very small group, of course, and it was intended to be upper class and aristocratic with ties of kinship to the ruling chief. These elite chose occupations in commerce and the liberal professions, especially law.

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These educated Africans gradually came to harbor distinct political ambitions of their own. They wanted to supplant the chiefs in substance if not in form and to become the main reliance of the colonial administration and perhaps eventually to win some degree of home rule.

However, in the 1920's a non-upper class educated and semi-educated group began to take form. This group was composed mostly of young men with primary and sometimes middle school education who had gotten far enough into the modern world to have a sense of their inadequate preparation for it and of the opportunities that at that time were beyond their grasp. They felt alienated from their own traditional life and they regarded as backward and too limiting the role of the "educated." It was this new group with its new vexations and attitudes which first began to think of a future for their country, radically different from the past. It was in this group that the idea of African nationalism began to take shape.

However, historians maintain that it was to the older group that Nkrumah looked when he returned from London to the Gold Coast in 1947 as secretary and political organizer. But once Nkrumah was back he quickly realized that the old leaders were too conservative for him to use for his purposes and he turned to the young, less well-educated group and built up his personal following among these young men. This group is called the Convention People's Party or CPP. There is no question but that this party has enthusiasm for education. Ghanaian nationalism was in part a revolt for education, and the impressive progress that has been made in this field testifies both to the genuineness of the popular demand and to the government's determination to meet that demand.

These credits for progress in educational development should properly be shared, however, by the present government and its colonial predecessor. Under the British rule, a tenure plan for education development was introduced as early as 1946. Beginning in 1951 at the start of the transition to independence, African political leaders shared power and responsibility and made substantial contributions to the formulation of the Accellerated Development Plan for Education. Between the years 1951 and 1959, Ghana spent almost 15 per cent of its total development expenditure on education, which was second only to its expenditure on communication. During that period enrollment in all educational institutions increased almost three-fold -- from 281,000 to 661,000; attendance in primary, middle, and secondary schools was considerably more than doubled; enrollment in trade and technical schools increased almost five times, and in teacher-training colleges considerably more than two times. Ghana acquired three university colleges after 1948. They are the University of Ghana at Legon in Accra, the Kwame-Nkrumah University of Science and Technology at Kumasi, and the University College of Cape Coast. At the other end of the spectrum, mass-education campaigns have brought literacy to thousands of adults outside the scope of the regular school system.[1]

> The Central Government today remains responsible for education. The Ministry of Education is the main government agency and it determines educational policy, sets and enforces curricular and teaching standards, and administers grants to approved schools. The ministry's executive agents in the field are the regional and district education officers who supervise the schools in the administrative region and districts into which the country is divided. However, simultaneously, there are strong decentralizing trends that work in the day-to-day operations. For example, practically all schools are managed by local authorities, such as local or urban councils, missionary groups or private organizations, or even individuals. All government primary and middle schools were transferred to local authorities in 1956 and the government's policy has been to place increasing responsibility on these local agencies for the educational development of the schools. Capital expenditure on primary and middle schools, for example, is a local matter except in northern regions. Many local authorities face serious financial problems in the educational fields.[2]

I think also I should mention that whenever one goes into a country where the British system has been used it is necessary to inform oneself as to what the various education terms mean. The primary schools, for example, offer a six-year course for students of approximately six to 12 years of age. Most primary schools are co-educational. The pupils who successfully complete the primary course and want further schooling go on to what is called the middle school. The middle school is for four years. Most pupils are from 12 to 15 years of age. A student must take two of the four years in order to go on to higher education.

Higher education in Ghana includes secondary grammar or secondary technical schools. A student may study in these schools after two, three or four years in the middle school. However, for university work the student is required to stay for an extra period of two years in higher education schools.

Now I would like to give you a little background on how we happened to become involved in a project in Ghana. This was an outgrowth of my service for the State Department in the spring of 1961, when I joined a group of women educators from the United States to conduct two workshops --one in East Africa and one in West Africa-- for African women school teachers on the subject, "Problems of Education of African Women and Girls." The western workshop was held in Nigeria on the Ibadan University College campus; the eastern one was held on the Royal College Campus in Nairobi, Kenya.

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[1] The information for the above paragraphs was taken from the book, The Educated African by Ruth Sloan Associates, chapter 23, published by Frederick A. Praeger, N.Y., 1962.

[2] Ibid, page 333.

To these workshops came women educators as delegates from 14 sub-Sahara, English-speaking African countries. At the conclusion of the two workshops, at the request of the State Department, we recommended 20 of the 37 workshop participants who would be invited to the United States for a three-month, all-expense paid study tour of education in the United States. One of the persons whom we recommended and who came was Miss Alberta Addo, who, at that time , was acting head of all women's education in Ghana and who continues in her permanent position in charge of domestic science subjects in primary and middle schools. While Miss Addo was in the United States she become impressed with the potentiality of United States home economics in Ghana. Upon her return home, she asked me to assist them in planning an experimental diploma course at Winneba Teacher Training College, which is 30 miles west of Accra. After a good deal of consideration of the subject and correspondence, we agreed to be of assistance to the extent that available funds and facilities permitted.

Very shortly after we became formally involved in the plans for this program, we were convinced that the only justification for continuing to devote the tremendous amount of time and energy this project required would be if there was evidence that it might lead to the establishment of a university-level degree program in home economics. We were given encouragement by the Ghanaians to work with them in the development of such a program.

At no time has this project had adequate financial support. The only way we could provide professional assistance by our faculty members in Ghana was by attracting those persons who were to be on sabbatical leaves and who received Fullbright fellowships for this purpose. Dr. Kathleen Rhodes was the first full time advisor at Winneba. Dr. Gwendolyn Newkirk and Dr. Harold Feldman have been there during the past year. Dr. Feldman is a professor in our Department of Child Development and Family Relationships and Dr. Newkirk has a Ph. D. from our Department of Home Economics Education and is on leave from her position as Head of Home Economics at North Carolina College, Durham. She will remain in Ghana a second year.

Cautions

From our experience in developing a program in Ghana, these cautions can be expressed:

1. North American assistance should be wanted and requested by the country. The request should be supported by not only the minister of education, but also by the officials of the schools or the universities with which you will work. These requirements were met by Ghana with the exception that the principal of Winneba Training Colleges had not been officially involved during the development of the agreement which was drawn up between Cornell University and the Ministry of Education in Ghana. This might well have created problems. It did not because of the very fine persons involved. But this is an example of not being sufficiently acquainted with the official organizational sturcture to foresee that this should have been done.

2. The faculty of your college must be interested in such a project. Also, hopefully, some members should be actually enthusiastic. It is difficult, if not impossible, for a college or school to be of first rate assistance in Africa if only the dean and/or the director and/or one or two faculty members support the project.

3. The project should not jeopardize your own undergraduate or graduate program. Under the best of circumstances it should contribute to and be a recipient of the graduate program. Our faculty discussed the project thoroughly and went on record in favor of it, but they were adamant that we should not weaken our own "reason for existence" -- that is, to educate to the best of our ability the undergraduate and graduate students in our own college.

4. The project should include considerable research, both in the African country and in your own institution. In the African country, the first job should be to collect the results of research already done and to analyze those results to find out what sort of program is needed. Nothing works by simple transplantation, as AID Director David Bell has said. He points out that assisting in the educational development in a rapidly developing country is a job of invention or at least, major adaptation -- a far more complicated and difficult job than simple transplantation. What is needed are institutions fitted to the history, the culture, and the values of the people of those countries. Research can go a long way toward providing a faculty with knowledge of the history, the culture, and the values of the people of the country.

Then it is necessary to undertake, along with the educational program, needed additional research. We have tried to do this. We have collected data on the family background of students at Winneba and their academic background. Attitude tests and pretests in food and nutrition and textiles and clothing have been administered. Information has been collected on attitudes and knowledge of school children in relation to food and health habits, and employment choices. These are now being analyzed. Dr. Feldman has completed his research report entitled, "The Ghanaian Family in Transition." Although I have not seen it I am sure that it will add greatly to our knowledge of the needs of the Ghanaian student in the area of home economics.

Also some research should be conducted concurrently in your own institution. A basic principle of any project in developing countries should be that the object is not only to give but also to learn.

I should like to quote from the publication, "AID and the Universities:"

> If the university is to function abroad as it does at home then it will include research as a normal part of its contract activity. And wherever possible both research and consultant work will be linked to various forms of teaching.[3]

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[3] John W. Gardner, "AID and the Universities," Education and World Affairs, 522 Fifth Ave., New York, N.Y., 1964, p. 11.

5. The project should be adequately funded. I could give you a good many examples of our frustrations due to the inadequacy of funds for our project. Times does not permit me to do this. All I can say is to assure you that all of us connected with this project would be a good deal happier if we had adequate money to do those things we believed needed to be done. The money which has been available has come from various sources, international, federal (both from Ghana and the United States), state, professional and philanthropic groups, and voluntary contributions from our home demonstration membership and other friends.

6. The best arrangement is a university to university agreement. This is more productive of results than a college to college, or African government to college or some other agreement between sub-divisions of the university.

7. All possible circumstances should be anticipated and covered in an acceptable (to both parties) written and signed agreement. The importance of written and signed statementsto most Africans is tremendous. It even applies to the individual. I am reminded of a story told to us by a workshop participant from Southern Rhodesia when she was at the college in 1961. She is married, has a large family, and has taught every year of her married life. She said that when she wanted to marry, her father insisted that the husband-to-be sign an agreement that his wife would be permitted to teach whenever she wanted to during her married life. She said she had to pull out this agreement only twice, but each time she has done so, her husband has withdrawn his objections to her teaching. This is much more difficult for a married couple in Africa than in the United States because often an African government will send the husband to one part of the country to teach and the wife to another part.

Even if you have considered all the circumstances which you can anticipate before you become involved in a project (not a part of a formally funded contract) in Africa, you are bound to miss some things which may cause problems. We learned this by experience. I suspect that there are very few persons who could anticipate all eventualities. But the point I am making is that it is important to take time to consider what might happen and try to cover those possibilities in the written agreement.

8. It is not possible to avoid the influence of the political situation. Our program is entirely educational and we have been advised by persons sophisticated in the area of assisting African countries to remain in Ghana until we are asked to leave. Nevertheless, it appeared to us in early June, before Dr. Kathleen Rhodes undertook her recent assignment in Ghana, that unless the government evidenced willingness to permit academic freedom in the development of programs, etc. in the universities and other schools, it would be wiser for us to terminate our present program at the end of the African school year , 1965-66, and wait until the educational climate was more encouraging before we agreed to assist in further development of a home economics degree program at the university level. However, upon Dr. Rhodes' return we learned that the Ghana Ministry of Education enthusiastically supports a university level degree program and that there is every evidence that the university is determined to start a degree program.

Potentials in Developing a University-Level Degree Program in Ghana

Educational programs can be developed and accepted much more rapidly in Ghana than is usually true in the United States. The new nations in Africa (as well as in South America and Asia, I am told.

> ..are not just determined but almost irrationally determined to accomplish over night the economic, social, and educational progress that has been achieved in Europe and in the United States in 200 years since the Industrial Revolution. In such a climate it is possible to achieve more and faster than it would be in another kind of climate.[4]

Economic and other factors may cause unexpected delays in the development of programs in schools and colleges. Frederick Harbison, director of the Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University, has stated:

> It is poor policy for any university in America to undertake a project in an underdeveloped country without thoroughly examining the totality of needs in the country and appraising the critical contributions which it may be able to make.[5]

Home economics should certainly do more of this. We should obtain and evaluate all the indicators of the socio-economic and physical health of the country about which we are concerned. To take the measure of underdeveloped countries is difficult and involves consideration of many factors. Harbison states that one should pay attention to non-economic facts in such evaluations. I agree. However, our experience in Ghana indicates a significant relationship between the economic health of a country and its educational advancement. The need for money for schools, salaries for teachers, scholarships for students at universities and at teacher's colleges, as well as scholarships for students who go abroad for graduate work is intimately related to the fact that Ghana is having great money trouble at the present time. This is a significant factor with respect to the potential development of a program at the university level in home economics.

Those of us in education have perhaps the central role to play in assisting the newly developing nations in this age of revolution of rising aspirations of the people. In considering the contribution which American education can make, it is important to understand, according to students of Africa, the problems of the newly developing countries and the critical choices which they must make. Unless we do have some understanding of what they face, we may give aid that is harmful rather than beneficial, and in some instances that is exactly what is being done. These newly developing countries are aware of the importance of education for their national development. Their aspirations are very high, and this is especially true in Ghana. But in order to speed the economic growth in a race with unemployment and population growth, most countries have formulated very ambitious development plans. This is true in Ghana; this includes roads, ports, dams, factories, schools, etc. In addition, most west African countries depend on one or two products for export. Ghana has but one, cocoa, and the world market price for this product has dropped drastically.

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[4] From foreign policy briefs of Dept. of State, Vol. XIV, No. 24, June 7, 1965; statement by David E. Bell, administrator of the Agency for International Development.

[5] "Education and the Modernizing of Nations: Summary of Proceedings of a Conference Sponsored by the Commission on International Education of the American Council on Education," Wayne State University, September 1964, p. 17.

Because many African countries have very ambitious plans for development, competition for external aid is keen and such aid becomes more and more difficult to get. With ambitious development plans and lack of funds to carry them out, the revolution of rising aspirations may turn into a revolution of frustration, disappointment, and rising resentment. Ghana, for example, is having great difficulty getting adequate outside financial support. This is one of the problems which we have had uppermost in our mind as we consider the future of our project.

It is important that we keep in mind and try to understand the critical choices which developing nations must make. I shall mention only the ones discussed by Harbison which have had a bearing on our project.

1. The allocation of educational opportunity.

"In Africa the opportunties to acquire higher education are scarce and the rewards to them who complete a university education are great. But, most Africans must be supported in universities at government expense. Thus, the government in effect allocates opportunities for higher education."[6]

Moreover, in awarding scholarships, etc., the government has very important choices to make - whether it will be on the basis of intellectual capacity or the manpower needs of the country, or on the basis of regional, tribal, and political consideration, or on a combination of these."[7]

2. Opportunities for study abroad provided by foreign donors.

"Here the difficult policy issues arise, (such as,) should students be free to accept offers for study abroad without approval of their home government, or should they be required to have prior consent. If prior consent is to be required, what should be the criteria for permission to study abroad?"[8]

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[6] Frederick Harbison, "Problems of Developing Higher Education in Newly Developing Nations," chapter in "Education and the Modernizing of Nations: Summary of Proceedings of a Conference Sponsored by the Commission on International Education of the American Council on Education," Wayne State University, September 1964, pp. 20-21.

[7] Ibid, p. 21

[8] Ibid, p. 22.

The Nigerian Ambassador to the United Nations, Chief Adebo, spoke on the Cornell campus this year. In answer to a question from the audience following his prepared remarks, he stated that Nigeria and most of the western African countries want their students to go to many different countries for graduate education; he mentioned Russia, the United States, Great Britain, and China. He concluded a rather long discussion by saying that the Africans are convinced that their students will obtain the best from these various kinds of education and that when they get home will be able to meld them into a philosophy which will work for the native country. This appears difficult for many United States citizens to understand and accept.

3. The concept of the role of the university.

"At one extreme the universities may play a very narrow role, limiting themselves to university-level education at high standard,"[9] which has been ture in the past, or to prepare students for employment rather than to continuing education and to basic research.

"Or they may extend their sphere of influence downward and outward to encompass intermediate education, applied research, extension services, and audlt education."[10] Here is where Ghana is in the midst of making a decision.

Sir Eric Ashby makes a very cogent comment on this point in his book, African Universities and Western Tradition.[11] In essence he says that after all, an African country must build the kind of an educational system that suits its own needs and that those of us in developed countries may be quite unhappy at times with how this educational system is being built. However, we cannot know how well the Africans are building or how well the final result will serve their needs.

As efforts are made to incorporate home economics in university programs in developing countries, and certainly in Ghana, assistance is needed from home economists who: (a) understand the European educational systems, after which the universities of these emerging countries have been patterned; and (b) can think creatively about the problems of developing home economics curricula that are appropriate for such systems. Systematic data gathering in the host country provides sound bases for curriculum planning. This has been a significant part of our Cornell-Ghana Project.

Traditionally the women of Ghana are leaders -- socially, economically, and politically. They are determinedly persuasive. We are convinced that whatever success our project has had is in large measure due to the support of these powerful women both in government and education positions and on community activities.

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[9] Ibid. p. 22.

[10] Ibid. p. 22.

[11] Sir Eric Ashby, Master of Clare College, University of Cambridge, African Universities and Western Tradition, Harvard University Press, 1964, pp. 70-93.

There is great enthusiasm for home economics in teachers colleges and considerable support of a degree program at the university level in Ghana. For the first time a well attended conference on home science in Ghana was held in the spring of 1964 in which a number of our faculty members participated and which I had the privilege of keynoting. Also a Ghana Home Economics Association was organized this spring as an outgrowth of that conference.

Conclusion

I conclude with the following quotation:

> The character and the outlook of the new African will be shaped in the early years of independence. Assistance from the United States and other developed nations cannot guarantee the emergence of stable, democratic nations moving towards self-support, but without genuine free world interest and help, these nations under great economic and social pressures are more likely to turn to extremist solutions for their problems, with far-reaching, irreversible implications for Africa and for the world.[12]

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[12] Proposed Mutual Defense and Development Programs, FY 1965; pp. 135-136.

CONFERENCE SUMMARY

by Doretta Hoffman*

Outstanding leaders have given inspirational, informative, and enlightening talks at this conference. Members of the conference have for the most part been in attendance at most or all of the sessions. There is little reason, therefore, to re-state what has already been so ably stated.

Certain key words that have impressed me are perhaps of more value in highlighting the excellent presentations than any other method of summarization. I have arbitrarily selected key words that to me represent a summary of the conference. They are listed below with short explanations of their meaning.

Key Words	Brief Explanation
Problems	Many problems have come to the attention of those who have had experience in higher education and home economics in other countries of the world. Problems merely set the stage for solutions...and innumerable problems call for ingenious solutions.
Progress	Evidence has been presented in many of the presentations that progress has been made in spite of all the problems facing representatives of universities and of government. The future holds unlimited possibilities for further progress and unusual advances are being made and will continue to be made.
Education	The key to success and progress lies, without question, in education. Over and over again in the talks the outstanding hope for the future lies in education. The importance of education cannot be over emphasized as it is the best and only way to cause progress.
Research	Many leaders are in complete agreement that a sound program for the future for all countries of the world and for the contribution that home economics can make is by a sound program of research. In this way, choice can be made as to which

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*Dr. Hoffman is dean, College of Home Economics, Kansas State University.

problems can be solved in a progressive way without the trial and error approach that is costly in terms of money, time, and human effort.

Understanding	Over and over again the need for better understanding was stressed at the conference. Without understanding of the social, economic, and cultural forces in the countries in which home economists are at work, there can be little progress. Understanding of the importance of the human beings and the factors that affect them is essential to a program of education and research in home economics.
Humanism	There is no more important element in our efforts than is the humanistic attitude of the professional home economist. The overwhelming importance of humanism is essential as the core of the program in working with others.
Language	Knowledge of the language of the people as an important factor in success of assistance to developing programs was stressed again and again by contributors to the conference. Members who attended the conference could hardly leave without a renewed interest in going home to learn another language.
Ingenuity	Herein lies the answer to programs that have the highest possibility for success. Translation of principles that are known to situations that are heretofore unknown demands the highest level of ingenuity .. but home economists are known to possess this trait in large measure.
Bold Approach	These two key words exemplify the future for world wide development of home economics and higher education. The words were taken from the presentation of one of the program participants and summarize the potential for the future in the best possible way.

CHALLENGES WHICH REMAIN

by Earl O. Heady*

This conference has dealt with an important and unique set of problems. It has come to grips with certain problems which should be the concern of the whole university, and home economists are to be commended both (a) in being able to conceptualize so many of these so well and (b) in bringing them before the academic community in a manner which may be inviting to other disciplines.

The Challenge to Lead Women to Their Full Potential

More important, however, the conference has focussed on the importance of women and the home in their potential role and contribution to social progress and economic development. This is a challenge of great order: to lead women of the world to their full potential in social progress. This is an aggregate and ultimate challenge, and an over-all objective for home economics, even though this end may sometimes seem obscured to the home economist working on day-to-day tasks of a country or institutional program in a particular discipline. It is more than a challenge; it is a responsibility if societies are to rise to the possibilities of their resources in extending social welfare. Societies, after all, are only the sum of individuals and families.

The Challenge to Draw Attention to Home Economics' Potential Contribution

A second major challenge, although it equally is a responsibility, is for home economics to bring the full vision of its potential contribution to the forefront. It is particularly important to get program administrators, budget directors, policy makers, and societies in general to understand the potential of home economics. As a collection of disciplines with equal focus on the families, households, women, social action, and the entire consumer complex or welfare function, the home economics area is broad. It should be so recognized. Unfortunately, the resource or production side usually receives emphasis in international developmental and aid programs. However, home economics affects many more persons and families and a greater proportion of the population of all countries. One reason why it does is simply because all workers or human resources are members of these groups, but not all members of these groups are in the labor force. Undoubtedly, the task of bringing this vision to program administrators rests with home economists. At this conference and elsewhere, you have be begun to build up the necessary momentum. Don't let it slacken. The social progress and welfare function of societies will be advanced most, in terms of the number of persons involved and the development of woman's fullest potential, only if an appropriate investment is made in the area of home economics.

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*Dr. Heady is professor of economics and executive director, Center for Agricultural and Economic Development at Iowa State University.

Home economics also is challenged in working with a far more complex set of human resources and social conditions than are those professions which deal with commerce, industrialization, etc. in the development of countries. Several factors contribute to this condition: Females generally have less favorable opportunities for education in developing countries. Women have a restricted role and voice in these countries. Moreover, general customs tend to confine woman to the home and work force and keep her away from the main stream of collective social action.

But because professional workers in home economics are more involved with these complexities, they generally have a better understanding of the effect of various facets of culture and customs on the desire for, the potential rate of, and the best means to desired change. You have, more than at any conference I have previously attended, reflected a penetrating insight into these phenomena. It would be useful , or could be even considered a challenge, for the home economics profession to orient this knowledge and concern for the benefit of all professional workers who participate in international programs, regardless of their field of specialization. Fewer mistakes and false starts would arise if this were possible. Perhaps home economics should take the initiative in creating one or more institutes which provide orientation in cultures, customs, values, and related phenomena for all professional workers preparing for assignments abroad.

In international programs, home economics deals or should deal with phenomena which, although somewhat directly attached to them, extends far beyond women and homes. Women not only are the homemakers, if we can borrow imperfectly a term from our own society which has only one meaning -- they also serve a much more important role and function in the unskilled labor force. They are, although given inadequate opportunity for development, an essential part of the stock of human resources. Added to these functions, they perform a heavy burden in simultaneously bearing large families and in attempting to maintain health, housing, nutrition , and family welfare generally under highly adverse conditions.

Of course, we are all aware of a strata of high income households in developing countries. However, while the relatively less complex and parallel approaches in research, education, and family counsel in highly developed societies apply quite widely to these households, such households make up the numerically insignificant sector of the population in the less developed societies. Hence, home economics has its most important assignment and challenge in an economic and social realm where the woman serves as a homemaker, laborer, family determinant, population expeditor, health officer, and house builder -- and performs a complex of other functions and duties. In fact, in most developing countries, it is impossible and generally not useful to try to distinguish between the activities of the household as a producing unit and as a consuming unit where the household produces hardly more food than for its own needs.

For this same reason, many of our aggregative theories of development underemphasize the social, economic, and motivational significances of the complex phenomena involved. They abstract too far from the individual units and cultural orientations which can serve importantly either to restrain or catalyze economic development and social progress. We thus are faced with an extreme void in theories and models which provide conceptual and quantitative frameworks for more systematic approaches in moving ahead through this complicated set of interrelationships of producing and consuming units and in various roles of the individual and family. One of the prime needs is to develop a relevant set of theories and concepts which will provide systematic direction in handling the complex set of phenomena and interrelationships involved. Because of its fundamental importance, home economists should both devote resources to this process, and help to see that others do so.

The Task of Securing Recognition of the Complexity of Phenomena Centering About Women, Households, Families and Values

Another major task before us is to find means, as this conference has partly done, to obtain proper recognition of the complexity as well as the importance of the phenomena which center around households, women, families, values, and other facets of the interrelationships in production and consumption or in savings and investment. Even in economic terms, the direct and indirect relationships in consumption or the household are of equal importance with those in production in specifying the organization of resources, commodities, and facilities which will maximize the welfare level. This obvious fact is not recognized sufficiently in our own international investments for development, and even in university programs which place an overly dominating emphasis on programs aimed at production.

The extreme of the latter position is, of course, expressed within socialist countries where the criterion and almost the end of economic organization is industrialization and the rate of economic growth, with the consumer sector taking a secondary role and serving mainly as a means. (E.g., goods are allocated to consumption on a basis designed to prevent social unrest, but labor and national income otherwise are oriented towards savings and investment to promote the rate of economic growth for the welfare of future generations or other remote ends.) The obsession with development, both in theory and practice, with less regard for and sometimes even at the expense of present welfare betterment, is even suggested in the label, AID, under which the United States makes its major international investment. This label directly emphasizes development, with welfare betterment suggested only secondarily.

Welfare betterment is, as mentioned earlier, as much dependent on reorganizations on the consumption, family, utility, or cultural side, as it is dependent on reorganizations on the resource and production side. Certainly welfare betterment (i.e.,in the set of relationships defining the production and investment functions) is the ultimate end of economic development. Quite obviously that set of phenomena and relationships to which home economics is most closely related is consumption and welfare betterment.

The Task of Continuing the Dialogue on the Goals of International Development Programs

Another major task is to continue the dialogue partly initiated here, to better define the goals and ends in international development programs, and to arrange for the best use of the nation's scientific and educational resources available for these purposes. The goals and objectives are themselves important to our programs, both on and off campus. While some institutions have well-defined goals in respect to economic development *per se* and international programs, I am not certain that this is generally the case. What are the real purposes? To some institutions, the goal appears to be simply that of being in style -- "We need to have an international program because others do." In other cases, an international program is largely a means to the university --a means of obtaining conventional on-campus activities through the diversion of contractual overhead funds. In still other cases, international programs are promoted to put foreign students on the home campus as a means of broadening the horizons of domestic students, or even to give the university's professors an opportunity to broaden themselves abroad. These purposes are discussed in relation to international programs about as frequently as are the most effective and efficient means of actually attaining economic development and welfare betterment. Perhaps equally often, the stated purposes in development and welfare serve only as a veneer covering a core of other purposes.

While this conference has aided, I doubt that our system as a whole has yet sufficiently faced the overriding purpose and justification -- development and welfare improvement -- which should be the foundation of international programs. I believe that our university programs will be organized quite differently when we do so. For example, universities would specialize more for the foreign student; they would provide specialized curricula for such students; they might put less emphasis on the scientific niceties and styles of science and economic development, and more emphasis on applied knowledge and research methodology. Pure science is one of the lowest cost imports for a developing country, as compared to applied research concentrating on unique conditions which are not duplicated elsewhere. In some fields, concentration on training in methodology, oriented to the environment of developed countries, is now so highly emphasized that foreign students, upon their return home, turn immediately to theoretical research which has the goals of getting articles published in Western journals and impressing their colleagues with whom they became acquainted in study in the United States. This product typically represents a smaller return on the developmental investment than would the solution of pressing practical problems in the context of the particular conditions of the country. In my own opinion, the programs of some of our "giant universities" (in international programs) tend to direct students more towards theoretical research than towards more direct and short-run utilitarian goals of economic development and social welfare betterment.

The Task of Securing More Effective Allocation of Research and Educational Resources in International Programs

Another major remaining institutional task is to bring about a more effective allocation of research and educational resources which can be diverted to international programs. While funds for this purpose are increasing, available manpower is extremely limited and will grow increasingly so in the next decade as domestic student enrollment increases. Our current system of national university involvement largely "grew up" without systematic planning. We still find several institutions involved in a single country where one or two could serve better, institutions competing with each other for university or developmental contracts in other countries, and a few universities spread thinly over many contracts while others are scarcely engaged. We find two universities engaged in foreign contract work, each in work for which the other is most suited in terms of specialized staff, geographic location and climatic condtions, and educational and research traditions. These over-all problems of the university network which need to be resolved if we are to systematize the use of our scientific resources and cause them to be most productive in international development programs.

With more funds becoming available for research on economic development, home economics should claim an appropriate and larger share of it. And this research should transcend realms traditionally put aside for home economics, since phenomena rather than the historic definitions are important. Because home economics is closer to the family, to women and the deepest rooted customs and values it properly can tackle such research areas as the following:

Education as it relates to human resource development (and particularly women, the relatively under-privileged in education by all societies);

The role of customs, values, and cultures in restraining women to the home and in restraining the family from the main stream of social progress;

The interrelationships of the firm and the household as these relate to rates of economic progress; and others.

The Challenges Facing Home Economics

I have outlined some major tasks that are still before us, in improving university or institutional international programs. The papers and discussions of this conference have dealt quite deeply and excellently with problems and practice for developing curricula, research programs, and administrative procedures. I have no doubt that the rising enthusiasm and interest of home economists will stimulate action along lines suggested at this conference. There can be much greater room for action, and a more productive outcome of such action, however, if the remaining university and institutional problems outlined can be more widely discussed, systematic research and educational programs for people from developing countries can be developed, and over-all solutions proposed.

Perhaps it is within the realm and challenge of home economics to lead the way and do so over its very broad and important set of disciplines. You have advantage both in (a) a wide collection of disciplines within home economics focusing on the central economic and social concern of societies and (b) a better identified collective interest, as compared, for example, with the range of disciplines which relate to the production and physical resource side of economic development. Challenge and opportunity exist for you to lead the way. Further, considerably more of the intellectual leadership in the international programs should come from home economics and closely related and similarly oriented disciplines. It is not impossible (and highly probable) that the basic and long-run solutaions in international poverty and development will come from the family and household side rather than from the physical resources and commodity supply side, where effort now is concentrated. The potential of population restraints, as compared to production improvement, alone poses this possibility over the long run. The initiative is with you and it should be exercised.

SUMMARY OF WORK GROUP REPORTS

The work groups had only limited time to meet during the conference. Each group was asked to prepare a brief written report and to select the one most important idea to present orally at the summary meeting of the conference.

Selected sections of the work group reports are included in the summary pages that follow. The summary statements are included under the work group number and the area of discussion.

Work Group 1

Curriculum Development in Universities Abroad

Leader ... Kathleen Rhodes, New York State
College of Home Economics

Reporter... Mavis Nymon, North Dakota
State University

In the time allowed for discussion by this group, the following emerged as some considerations generally believed to be important in developing curriculum in universities abroad:

1. It is necessary to ascertain the goals or objectives of the university curriculum in home economics in the light of the country's needs. This determination of goals necessitates a knowledge of and a taking into account of the culture and traditional patterns or practices of the people.

2. Consideration needs to be made for pyramid training; i.e., training for all levels of education and responsibility.

3. Plans need to be made for the practical application or testing of knowledge through supervised training or experience in the home and community in order to gain further insights into needs and problems, problem-solving, and research methods and to offer community service. Where they exist, community and development training centers might be used to provide training ground experiences and to extend home economics knowledge for the betterment of the community. It was considered that this type of pre-planned or supervised home and community experience might substitute for the traditional home management residence or be carried on as a type of combination home management residence-community center type project.

4. In terms of the actual curriculum, root disciplines in physical, biological, and social sciences should be available in the university before a degree course is contemplated in home economics.

a. Root disciplines considered of special importance were chemistry and physics in the physical sciences; biology, physiology, and microbiology in the biological sciences; and sociology, anthropology, economics, psychology, and political science in the social sciences.

b. There should be sufficient opportunity for taking mathematics as a background for the physical sciences or the necessary mathematics should be given in the courses.

c. The basic core of home economics areas was considered to be human growth and development, nutrition, and management in the broadest sense.

d. Each student should learn to teach in formal and informal ways with an emphasis on the extension of home economics as a valuable contribution to home and community.

Work Group 2

Meeting the Research Needs in Developing Home Economics Programs

Leader ... Helen Barbour, Oklahoma State University

Prior to the establishment of research programs in developing home economics programs, it is necessary to establish a base line in the community to use in planning research and measuring future progress. Information already available from experiment stations, social science institutes, or government agencies should be ascertained.

Research findings are needed so that textbooks can be based on facts that pertain to the developing country.

Research techniques need to be acquired by students from the developing countries in order to further the needed research and to help them recognize the dignity of work.

Developing countries need assistance in establishing norms or standards against which they may evaluate their findings from research.

Work Group 3

Problems of Administering Programs

Leader ... Frances Zuill, University of Wisconsin

Recorder ... Doris Hansen, Purdue University

The administrative problem areas associated with international programs were identified as follows:

Knowing the process of initiating programs

Communicating with the established hierarchies at home and abroad

Understanding the philosophies and practices of administration as they are applied to the host country.

Recognizing differences in time and tempo concepts

Finding ways in which the home economics program can best be coordinated with other programs, agencies, and institutions in the host country

Determining the amount and kinds of support and direction to be provided by the home campus

Establishing and interpreting personnel policies for the advisory staff

Working within the personnel structure of the host country and developing qualified local staff within this structure

Work Group 4

Evaluation of Programs

Leader ... June Cozine, Oklahoma State University

Secretary ... Mary Gephart, Michigan State University

These areas need to be evaluated:

A. The University Setting

1. Evaluation of students who come for training

   The extent trainees are prepared to assume responsibility upon returning to native country depends upon such factors as:

   -- the completeness of the statement describing responsibilities
   -- the acceptance by the student of the responsibilities for assignment upon return
   -- the student's competency in English
   -- previous training and experience in related disciplines and home economics
   -- the orientation of the student before arrival at the university
   -- an understanding of the conditions in the home land of the students

2. Evaluation of the university to undertake the work

   The decision of an institution to enter into a cooperative program depends upon a number of factors:

--the staff, their interests, commitments, qualifications, and adequacy
--the program, duration in time and how related to other facets of the program
--The institution...attitude, willingness, and assistance of the administration in regard to the program; breadth and depth of training available in home economics and related areas offered by the institution.

B. Programs Abroad

1. The immediate and long time goals or objectives of a program should be the base for evaluation of the program and should include a critical review of the objectives.

2. In ascertaining the appropriateness of objectives, consideration should be focused on:

   a. Social economic, technological, political, and cultural development of a country
   b. Status and role of women in the country
   c. Cultural understanding
   d. Philosophy of working with another culture
   e. Educational system
   f. Philosophy of the sponsoring U.S. agency
   g. Limitations and extent of program
   h. Inter-agency organization
   i. Establishment of working relationships with groups within the country

Work Group 5

Statement of Roles of Home Economics in Developing Countries

Leader ... Helen LeBaron, Iowa State University

Recorder ... Maie Nygren, Oklahoma State University

A number of specific roles were identified. The specific roles were classified into two major types. They are:

A. Roles in Relation to the Task to be Done

1. Develop understandings about home economics through interpreting:

   a. What home economics is and how it can contribute to human resource development
   b. The importance of improved homes and family living to economic development
   c. The importance of woman's role to the development of the country and the resolution of the country's problems
   d. The importance of recognizing and appreciating both human and material resources of a community, a country, and its culture

2. Develop self-sufficiency through:
   a. Technical competences and skills
   b. Identifying problems and ways of solving them
   c. Preparing texts and materials in a national language
   d. Research competencies and skills
   e. Creativity
   f. Building institutions and developing programs

B. Roles in Relation to Home Economists Involved in Doing the Task

1. Become adaptable in order to work with different groups and in different situations
2. Become creative
3. Interpret home economics programs to others in and outside the country

A definitive statement regarding the one or several roles of home economics in developing countries is needed as a means of interpreting to others, especially to government officials, the potential contribution home economics can make to the development of human resources and to the development of a country.

We recommend, therefore, a committee be appointed to draft such a statement, keeping in mind the audiences with which such a statement would probably be used.

Work Group 6

Developing and International Dimension in Home Economics Education in the United States

Leader ... Louise Stedman, University of
Minnesota
Reporter ... Rose Cologne, Pennsylvania
State University

The group agreed that developing the international dimension in programs of home economics education is important to the future of home economics. Such a development needs to be undertaken along several lines ... in formal and informal programs, as a part of a broad university involvement through the total home economics programs and also within home economics specializations.

A group of committed and interested faculty members is required. Through travel and study they may be alerted to the possibilities of introducing international concepts into their own disciplines. Such interest, transmitted to students, will stimulate a two-way sharing of pertinent information among foreign and American students and faculty.

In discussing an international dimension in home economics in a United States university the following questions were raised as a basis for determining the directions, dimensions, and scope such programs should take.

1. What students are under consideration ... and at what level of education?
2. What type of program ... formal credit courses, informal non-credit, other?
3. Is the international dimension important to:
   a. All students in home economics?
   b. A selected group interested in working abroad?
4. Should the undergraduate program prepare for international service or should the program be for graduate students?
5. What provisions are made or should be made for administering the program in the university?
6. What provisions are being made for suitable materials?
7. What use is being made of available resources such as foreign students, faculty with foreign experience, Peace Corps returnees, and others?
8. Should any one institution attempt to specialize in taking students from only specific areas of the world?
9. Should all programs for foreign students be degree programs?

ISU panel discusses development of research and graduate programs abroad.

INTERNATIONAL HOME ECONOMICS

Conference on World-Wide Development of Home Economics in Higher Education

Work group on administration of programs discusses mutual problems.

Work group discusses curriculum development in universities abroad.

BOLD APPROACH
PROBLEMS
PROGRESS
EDUCATION
RESEARCH
HUMANISM
LANGUAGE
STATE
ERSITY

KSU's Dean Doretta Hoffman summarizes conference.

David G. Heft, Pan American Union, addresses conference.

Home economists from Ghana and Sierra Leone visit at conference.

View of part of the audience during one of conference sessions.

Conference principals included (left to right) Ercel S. Eppright, Earl O. Heady, Doretta Hoffman, and W. G. Stucky.

West African home economists await first session.

Katherine Holtzclaw, ISU's Dean Helen LeBaron, and Coradel Hamilton chat between conference sessions.

[redacted]

Speakers posing for camera are David Heft, Graciela Quan, C. Frances MacKinnon, and Linda Nelson.

ISU's Earl O. Heady outlines challenges.

Women inspect publications exhibit.

APPENDIX I

Registration List

Rebecca R. Agroh
Social Worker
Ghana, West Africa

Georgia M. Amick
Univ. of Missouri
Columbia, Mo.

Beatrice Asiedu
Social Welfare Worker
Ghana

Mae Baird
Kansas State Univ.
Manhattan, Kansas

Helen Barbour
Oklahoma State Univ.
Stillwater, Okla.

Shirley E. Barnes
Women's Africa Committee
African-American Inst., N.Y.

Bernice Bateson
Extension Staff
Iowa State Univ.

George M. Beal
Sociology
Iowa State Univ.

Myra Bishop
University of Tennessee
Knoxville, Tenn.

Grace Boafo
Social Worker
Ghana, West Africa

Lucinda Bockari
Community Dev. Worker
Sierra Leone, West Africa

Mary M. Bodwell
Extension
Iowa State Univ.

Mildred Bonnell
Inst. Mgt.
University of Ill.

Mildred Bonnell
Inst. Mgt.
University of Illinois
Urbana, Ill.

Lucile Bott
Grad. Assistant
New Mexico State University
University Park, N.M.

Wilma Brewer
F & N
Iowa State Univ.

Margaret Browne
Federal Extension
USDA

Phyllis Bubnas
Southern Ill. University
Carbondale, Ill.

Wesley Buchele
Agriculture Engineering
Iowa State University

Mrs. Wesley Buchele
Ames, Iowa

R. Freeman Butts
Teachers College
Columbia University
New York, N.Y.

Helen G. Canoyer
New York State Col. Hm. Ec.
Cornell Univ.
Ithaca, N.Y.

Frances Carlin
Food Science
Iowa State University

Hester Chadderdon
Home Ec. Education
Iowa State Univ.

Michael Chiappetta
U.S. Dept. of State
Washington, D.C.

Angela Christian
Embassy of Ghana
Washington, D.C.

Marybelle H. Clark
C & T
Purdue Univ.
Lafayette, Ind.

Eugene Clubine
Foreign Student Adviser
Iowa State Univ.

Agnes Cobbina
Volunteer (NCGW)
Ghana

Rose Cologne
Penn State Univ.
University Park, Pa.

M. Antonieta Contreras
Mudelein College
Chicago, Ill.

Eliza M. Corbin
USAID c/o Amer. Embassy
Tanzania

June Cozine
Oklahoma State Univ.
Stillwater, Okla

Virginia F. Cutler
Brigham Young Univ.
Provo, Utah

Anita Dean
Michigan State Univ.
East Lansing, Mich.

M. Teresa Decombe
College of St. Catherine
St. Paul, Minn.

Eugenia Donahue
Coop. Extension Serv.
Purdue Univ.
Lafayette, Ind.

Gertrude Drinker
Department of Agriculture IADS
Washington, D.C.

Agatha Dumolga
Party Assistant
Ghana

Mary Margaret Ekuban
Day Nursery Organization
Ghana

Marlene Ellis
C. Dev.
Iowa State Univ.

Ercel Eppright
Hm. Ec. Research
Iowa State Univ.

Gertrude Esteros
University of Minnesota
St. Paul, Minn

Florence Fallgattor
F & N
Iowa State Univ.

Julia M. Faltinson
Home Ec.
Iowa State Univ.

Leonard Feinberg
English
Iowa State Univ.

Bess Ferguson
3425 Woodland St.
Ames, Iowa

Mary Foray
Voluntary Leader
Sierra Leone, West Africa

Hazel Fox
Univ. of Nebraska
Lincoln, Nebraska

Caroline Fredrickson
Univ. of Minn
St. Paul, Minn.

Mary Fuqua
Purdue Univ.
Lafayette, Ind.

Pilar Garcia
F & N
Iowa State U.

Ruth A. Gauger
Syracuse Univ.
Syracuse, N.Y.

Louise Gentry
Penn State Univ.
University Park, Pa

Mary Gephart
Michigan State Univ.
East Lansing, Mich.

Mary Gibbs
Family Ec. & Mngt.
Indiana State Univ.

Ruby Gingles
Univ. of Nebraska
Lincoln, Nebraska

Jewel Graham
Extension
Iowa State Univ.

Patsy Graves
USAID-Nigeria
Washington, D.C.

Maye D. Hagen
Mankato State College
Mankato, Minn.

Georgia Halstead
Bowling Green State Univ.
Bowling Green, Ohio

Coradel Hamilton
FAO, Rome, Italy

Doris Hanson
Prudue Univ.
Lafayette, Ind.

Inez Harrill
Colorado State Univ.
Ft. Collins, Colo.

Edwin O. Haroldsen
CAED
Iowa State Univ.

Glenn R. Hawkes
C.D.
Iowa State Univ.

Earl O. Heady
Economics
Iowa State Univ.

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Pan American Union
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Univ. and Land-Grant Colleges
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Carbondale, Ill.

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C. D. Worker
Sierra Leone

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Iowa State Univ.

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Madison, Wis.

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Amy Jean Knorr
Univ. of Arizona
Tucson, Ariz.

Mrs. Kenneth Kruempel
Peace Corps Home Economist
Mogia Mirim, S.P., Brazil

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H. Ec. Ext.
Iowa State Univ.

Matilda Kutubu
Sierra Leone

Helen R. LeBaron
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Iowa State U.

Margaret Liston
H. Mgt.
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Iowa State Univ.

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Social Worker
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Blacksburg, Va.

Mrs. Sophia Moore
Teacher
Ghana

Sue Tayler Murrey
Federal Ext. Serv.
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Linda Nelson
Org. of American States
Turrialba, Costa Rica

Sylvia Noid
Chio State Univ.
Columbus, Ohio

Maie Nygren
Oklahoma State Univ.
Stillwater, Okla.

Mavis Nymon
North Dak. State Univ.
Fargo, N.D.

Lura Odland
Univ. of Tennessee
Knoxville, Tenn.

Emily Dorus Ofori-Atta
Social Worker
Ghana

Lela O'Toole
Oklahoma State Univ.
Stillwater, Okla.

Pauline C. Paul
Univ. of Calif. - Davis
Davis, Calif.

Rose Pentsil
Social Worker
Ghana

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H. Equip.
Iowa State Univ.

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Miami Univ.
Oxford, Ohio

Mary Reeves
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HEW, Chicago, Ill.

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Murray, Ky.

Sister Mary Pierre BVM
Mundelein College
Chicago, Ill.

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Margaret Yoder
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Frances Zuill
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Univ. of Wisconsin
Madison, Wis.

APPENDIX II

Biographical Sketches of Speakers

Miss Frances Zuill

Title: Emeritus Dean and Professor, School of Home Economics, University of Wisconsin; former Chief Adviser, Oklahoma-Pakistan Home Economics Program

Frances Zuill was Professor and Associate Dean of the College of Agriculture for the School of Home Economics at the University of Wisconsin from 1939 to 1961 when she retired. She received her B.S. and M.A. degrees from Teacher's College, Columbia University and has had additional work at a number of different universities.

Miss Zuill began her teaching experience in a rural school near Whitswater, Wisconsin. Her educational positions have included the following: dormitory director and head of home economics at the State School of Science, Wahpeton, North Dakota; instructor of home economics education, Teacher's College, Columbia University; supervisor of home economics, Baltimore, Maryland; professor and head of home economics State University of Iowa; and associate Dean of the College of Agriculture for the School of Home Economics, University of Wisconsin. She also served as visiting professor for short sessions at Cornell University, University of Washington, and Johns Hopkins University.

Miss Zuill has served the American Home Economics Association in many different capacities, as chairman of the College and University department, budget chairman, national secretary, national president, as well as a member of the Council for Committee on Higher Education for five years. She has taken an active role in so many committees and projects for the AHEA and the Land Grant Association of Universities and Colleges that they cannot be listed here. She is also past-president of the Maryland and Wisconsin Home Economics Associations. She was made a life member of AHEA at the fiftieth anniversary of the association. She is a member of Omicron Nu, Phi Upsilon Omicron, Phi Kappa Phi, and Delta Kappa Gamma.

Miss Zuill has published extensively in national journals, having written more than fifty articles. In addition she co-authored the Family's Food and Food and Family Living. She also contributed to Home Economics in General Education at the secondary level, Family in Our Schools, Home Economics in Higher Education and to Potentialities of Women in the Middle Years.

Miss Zuill was invited to go to India in 1957 as an educational consultant for the International Cooperation Administration (now AID) to assist in evaluating the home science programs in the women's colleges which were cooperating with this agency, the Central Ministry of Education in India and the University of Tennessee. From 1961 to 1964 she served as chief adviser for the Oklahoma-

Pakistan Home Economics Program sponsored by the Ford Foundation, where she assisted in the development of three home economics colleges located in Karachi, Lahore, and Dacca. She has served as consultant for a number of colleges in this country.

The new facilities at the University of Wisconsin, the development of research and graduate work, the improvement of curricula and instruction, and student counseling attest to Miss Zuill's leadership and energy in the field of home economics.

She is listed in Who's Who in America, Who's Who in Education, and Who's Who in American Women.

Dr. Floyd Andre

Title: Dean, College of Agriculture, Iowa State University

Dean Andre has a three-fold responsibility at Iowa State University. He is dean of the teaching faculty in the College of Agriculture, director of the Agricultural Experiment Station, and director of the Agricultural Extension Service.

Born near New Sharon, Iowa, he lived on a farm with his parents until 1920. He took all of his high school work at the Pasadena, California High School where he graduated in 1927.

Enrolling in Iowa State University in September 1927, he received the bachelor of science degree in 1931 as an honor student in the department of farm crops and soils; the master of science degree from Iowa State in 1933, with major work in entomology and minor work in zoology; and the degree of doctor of philosophy from Iowa State in 1936, with major work in entomology and minor work in zoology and chemistry.

He continued his teaching and research work at Iowa State, after receiving the Ph.D. Degree there, and in 1938 joined the Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine in the United States Department of Agriculture.

In 1940 he became experiment station administration and entomologist for the Office of Experiment Stations, USDA. In 1943 he became senior experiment station administrator and senior entomologist in the same office. In 1945 he became principal experiment station administrator and principal entomologist in the Office of Experiment Stations.

Andre was appointed assistant director of the Wisconsin Agricultural Experiment Station and professor of economic entomology at the University on August 1, 1946; he was made assistant dean, College of Agriculture and assistant director of extension and continued as assistant director of the Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Wisconsin, July 1, 1948. From there he moved to Iowa State University, July, 1949.

Foreign experience of Dean Andre includes consulting work with Mexican Cattle Producers' Association in Chihuahua, Mexico (1957); starting in 1959 consulting on and selection of specialists for agricultural improvement in Argentina, with special reference to education, in cooperation with Argentine government agency, including reviews and program development in Argentina in 1960, 1961, and 1963; administrative supervision of Iowa State University, College of Agriculture contracts in Peru and Uruguay, including review of work in both countries in 1963 and 1964; brief survey of agriculture in the Barbados (1963); Land-Grant College Association representative on team to study five-year plan for agricultural development, including education, in Paraguay for US/AID Mission in Paraguay (1964); leader of team to review development plan of the Rural University of the State of Minas Gerais, Brazil, at the request of the Ford Foundation (1964).

Mrs. Dorothy H. Jacobson

Title: Assistant Secretary for International Affairs, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

Mrs. Dorothy H. Jacobson, Assistant Secretary of Agriculture for International Affairs, came to Washington with the Secretary in 1961, and has served as speech writer, policy statement drafter, legislative adviser and consumer affairs expert, and has devoted her time increasingly to the area of foreign agriculture. In 1961 she accompained the Secretary when he traveled in the Middle East and Southeast Asia to study national agricultural programs. In 1963 she was on the study team the Secretary led in a month-long visit to the Soviet Union and the Iron Curtain nations. In both cases she prepared detailed reports of the trip which have become the basis for evaluating both policies and programs.

Mrs. Jacobson, the first woman to hold a position of the rank of Assistant Secretary on the Secretary of Agriculture's staff in the Department's history of more than 100 years, attended school in Herman, Minnesota; studied at St. Cloud State College, Minnesota; and after teaching two years, enrolled in the University of Minnesota where she received her B S. and M.A. degrees. She taught in the University High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota; the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; and the Macalester College of St. Paul, Minnesota, leaving to become administrative assistant to the then Governor Orville Freeman.

As Assistant Secretary Mrs. Jacobson has the responsibility for the Foreign Agricultural Service and the International Agricultural Development Service and the coordination of the Department's participation in international programs. Major areas of work include Public Law 480 Food for Peace, Kennedy Round negotiations, agricultural technical assistance, and Department responsibilities in international organizations such as the Food and Agriculture Organization.

Dr. Elton L. Johnson

Title: Director, International Rural Development,National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges

Elton L. Johnson is currently serving as Director, International Rural Development Office of the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges in Washington, D.C. The University of Minnesota granted Dr. Johnson a leave of absence to provide leadership of the IRD office which serves a liaison function between Association universities and the Agency for International Development and the United States Department of Agriculture.

The international interests of Dr. Johnson during recent years include service as Chairman of the Council on International Agriculture at the University of Minnesota from 1962 to 1964, as well as representation on the All-University Committee on International Programs. Johnson also served for two months in the Summer of 1960 as consultant for the Foreign Agricultural Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture in Europe and Asia, and again in 1963 for approximately one month. He made 3 trips to Mexico in 1964 involving approximately 5 weeks in that country. Two of these trips were specific programs dealing with a seminar for deans of agricultural colleges from Latin American universities involving coordinating educational programs at both graduate and undergraduate levels, and a seminar on the improvement of communications in international agricultural programs. Almost two years were spent in England and France during World War II with primary service as a medical administrative officer. This position required constant contact with the civilian French community as Dr. Johnson was the medical supply officer for the 108th General Hospital and the Seine Base Surgeons Command which required frequent purchases of medicine and drugs from civilian agencies.

Johnson is the author of numerous technical and popular publications. In addition to those in poultry science and nutrition, publications include specific papers on international affairs and a few professional papers published in Spanish and Hebrew. A list of such publications will be made available upon request.

Educational background of Dr. Johnson includes achievement of the BSA degree at Oklahoma State University, MS and PhD degrees at Prudue University with a major in animal nutrition and minors in biochemistry and statistics. Following his undergraduate program at Oklahoma State University, he served on the staff at Prudue University as research assistant while pursuing advanced degrees. He was appointed to the position of Professor and Head of the Department of Poultry Science at the University of Minnesota in 1953. Five years were spent on the staff at Iowa State University in teaching and research with primary emphasis in avian nutrition. He also served as a consultant and writer for the animal feed industry.

His professional activities in the agricultural industry involved numerous committee functions over a period of several years. Included among such activities were the Minnesota Poultry Improvement Board; Minnesota Turkey Growers Association; Minnesota Poultry Industry Council; Minnesota Poultry, Butter and Egg Association; Northwest Feed Manufacturers Association, and other similar government and nongovernment organizational activities.

Academic interests and activities include the professional fields of administration, research and teaching with primary emphasis on avian nutrition. Campus activities outside the departmental and specific professional obligations include a diversity of activities on university committees. A special interest in academic affairs has involved the improvement of instructional abilities of faculty. In this respect he was chairman of the Instruction Committee within the College of Agriculture, Forestry and Home Economics for a 2-year period during which time there were seminars developed toward the objective of providing discussions and opportunities for faculty members to work toward improved instructional opportunities and self development.

Directory listings and association memberships include the following: American Men of Science, Who's Who in America (Vol. 34), Society for International Development, International Club of Washington, D.C., American Institute of Nutrition, Poultry Science Association, American Society for Animal Production, Federation of American Societies for Experimental Biology, Alpha Zeta, Gamma Sigma Delta, and other university and civic organizational groups.

Johnson entered military service in World War II as a private and advanced to the commissioned rank of Captain during service in several administrative posts including special services officer, assistant registrar, and medical supply officer. Reserve activity in research and development units since World War II involved administrative service as adjutant until Johnson moved to Washington, D.C. His current rank is Lt. Colonel, MSC-USAR.

Elton L. Johnson was born in Florence, Colorado and married Marjorie Blanche Tobias of Lafayette, Indiana. The Johnson family, with their children Carol (1944) and David (1947) reside at 7603 Livingston Road, Washington, D.C. 20022.

Dra. Graciela Quan V.

Title: Consultant in Central American and Panama, Overseas Education Fund, The League of Women Voters

Citizen of Guatemala.

Graduated as elementary school teacher from Belen National Institute and Central Normal School for Young Women.

1943 - law degree from School of Juridicial & Social Sciences of San Carlos National University, Guatemala.

1944-45 - President of Guatemalan Women's Union for Citizenship

1949-50 - Studied social work at Worden School of Social Service, San Antonio, Texas.

1950-51 - Supervisor of Higher School of Social Work of Guatemala, Professor of Group Social Work.

1950-51 - President, Altrusa Club of Guatemala. Presently a member.

1950-53 - Secretary of Governing Board of National Committee for the Blind, Deaf and Dumb. Subsequently Executive Director, then Vice-Chairman, member of its Advisory Council.

1951-1962 - Adviser to Social Welfare Auxiliary Service.

Has been member of Juvenile Court, advisory member of National League for Cancer Control, Assistant Secretary of Second Private Secretariat of the President of the Republic, member and Vice-Chairman of Organizing Committee of the Social Welfare Council of Guatemala.

1954-62 - Delegate of Guatemala to United Nations General Assembly, member of Committee III on Social, Humanitarian and Cultural Affairs, of which she was elected Rapporteur during Eleventh Assembly in 1956.

1955-57 - Adviser on Social Work to Department of Social Matters of the Executive Office of the President.

1955-63 - Guatemalan Delegate to the Inter-American Commission of Women.

1957-61 - Chairman of Inter-American Commission of Women.

Dr. Quan joined the consultant staff of the Overseas Education Fund in April 1963.

Miss Angela Christian

Title: Counsellor, Second Secretary, Cultural Affairs, Embassy of Ghana

Born in Ghana

Miss Christian received her education at a private school - Files de la Sagesse Convent - in Hampshire, England, and at Maria Grey College, a constituent institution of the Institute of Education, University of London, England.

After leaving college, Miss Christian was appointed a member of the Senior Staff of Achimota College in Accra, Ghana. Miss Christian entered the Foreign Service in 1958 and has served in the Ghana High Commission in London as Information Officer, and as Cultural Attache at the Ghana Embassy in Paris.

Miss Christian arrived in Washington on the 17th August, 1962, to assume her present duties in the Embassy of Ghana as Second Secretary.

Dr. Vernon C. Johnson

Title: Agricultural Division, U.S. Agency for International Development

Born in Port Gibson, Mississippi

Elementary & High School Education - Port Gibson, Mississippi

Military Service - U.S. Army 1942-1946

Colleges

(1)	Southern University Baton Rouge, Louisiana (1940-42 & 1946-48)	B.S. degree in Agricultural Education
(2)	University of Wisconsin Madison, Wisconsin (1949-54)	M.S. and Ph.D. degrees in Agricultural Economics
(3)	Agricultural & Technical College of North Carolina (1954-57)	Teaching and Research

U.S. Agency for International Development and its predecessor Agencies

Places

India	1957-59
Africa Study Course	1959-60
Nigeria	1960-64
Washington	1964-

Miss Patsy Graves

Title: U.S.A.I.D. Home Economics Advisor,Western Region of Agriculture and Natural Resources, Nigeria, West Africa

Education: B.S. in Home Economics, West Virginia State College Institute, West Virginia

M.A. in Social Work, Columbia University School of Social Work, New York City, N.Y.

Past Positions: Chief Home Economist, USAID - Brazil, Rio de Janerio

Regional Home Economist, USAID - India, Calcutta

Home Economist, Farmers Home Administration, U.S. Department of Agriculture

Awards: Meritorius Honor Award, USAID

Dr. R. Freeman Butts

Title: Associate Dean for International Studies, Teachers College, Columbia University

R. Freeman Butts is William F. Russell Professor in the Foundations of Education. He has a A.B. in Humanities (Honors), an A.M. in educational administration, and a Ph.D. in history of education and in philosophy. All three degrees were awarded by the University of Wisconsin.

His major fields of teaching and research have been the history of education and international education. He has been Fulbright Research Scholar in Australia (1954), chief of Teachers College's educational assistance program under AID in India (1959), Carnegie Travel grantee to Africa and Asia (1960-61), director of the Teachers for East Africa project beginning in 1961, and director of studies for Nigeria Peace Corps training programs. In 1963, he visited five South American countries in a study of the role of universities in teacher training for the Council on Higher Education in the American Republics (CHEAR). He has been an active participant in many international conferences on teacher education in Africa and South America.

As Associate Dean for International Studies, he is responsible for the overall administration of all the international projects of teachers College now being conducted on the three emerging continents of the world: Africa, Asia, and South America; and he is a member of the faculty of the School of International Affairs of Columbia University. He is presently launching, at Teachers College, the Institute of International Studies for research in education. He is immediate past president of the Comparative Education Society. He is chairman of the New York editorial board of The Year Book of Education, member of the Committee on Education and Human Resource Development of Education and World Affairs, and chairman-designate of the Committee on International Relations of the National Education Association.

On July 1, 1965, he returned from a six months' appointment as a Senior Specialist in Residence at the East-West Center of the University of Hawaii where he made studies relating the history of Western Education to the development of modern civilization and the modernization process in the new nations.

Professor Butts has written many articles and monographs. He is the author of several books including: The College Charts Its Course, A Cultural History of Western Education, Assumptions Underlying Australian Education, the American Tradition in Religion and Education, A History of Education in American Culture and American Education in International Development.

Dr. Kathleen Rhodes

Title: Professor, Home Economics Education, New York State College of Home Economics, Cornell University.

Education

Teachers Certificate - University of London - 1935
M.S. Degree - Cornell University - 1947
Ph. D. Degree - Cornell University - 1950

Positions Held

1935-36	Part-time teaching and research as holder of research grant, National Society's Training College of Domestic Science, London, England
1936-37	Teacher of Homemaking in Senior Modern School, Middlesex Education Committee, London, England.
1936-37	Part-time teacher of adults at Borough Polytechnic, London Education Committee, London, England.
1937-41	Responsible for organizing department of Home Economics at N. Gloucestershire Technical College, Gloucestershire Education Committee, Cheltenham, England.
1941-45	Responsible for Foods and Nutrition Department in Teachers Training College, Liverpool Education Committee, Liverpool, England.
1947-49	Assistant in Home Economics Education, New York State College of Home Economics, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York (while doing graduate study in Home Economics Education).

1949-50	Senior Education Supervisor, Bureau of Home Economics Education, State Education Department, Albany, New York.
1950-51	Acting Associate in Home Economics Education, Bureau of Home Economic Education, State Education Department, Albany, New York.
1953-56	Head of Home Economics, New Jersey College for Women, New Brunswick, New Jersey.
1956-65	Associate Professor, Home Economics Education, Cornell University
1963-64	Fulbright senior lecturer and research associate, Institute of Education, University of Ghana, seconded to Winneba Training College.
1964-65	Consultant, University of Ghana, Winneba Training College (3 mo.)
1965-	Professor, Home Economics Education, Cornell University.

Dr. David Heft

Title: Chief, Exchange of Persons Service, Department of Educational Affairs, Pan American Union, Washington

1928-43	Instructor of French and Spanish, Townsend Harris High School and the College of the City of New York
1928-31	Graduate study at Columbia University and New York University-French literature.
1931 (summer)	Study at the Sorbonne, University of Paris
1941	Ph.D., New York University - French
1943-45	Inter-American Trade Scholarship and International Training Administration-supervision of foreign trainees brought to the United States for industrial, technical and business experience.
1945-49	Inter-American Educational Foundation and Institute of Inter-American Affairs: Director of the Training Program. Mission to Latin America to orient prospective Brazilian trainees (vocational education teachers).
1950-58	Chief, Section of Educational Interchange, Divison of Education, Department of Cultural Affairs, Pan American Union.
1950 to date	Secretary, Leo S. Rowe Pan American Fund (Pan American Union)-interest-free loans to Latin Americans for college, university and professional study in the U.S.
1953 to date	Director, Intership Program of the Pan American Union for government personnel of the member states.
1958 to date	Member, Advisory Board, Fellowship Program of the Organization of American States. Technical adviser and member of secretariat of inter-American education seminars, the Tenth Inter-American Conference (Caracas, 1954), the Cultural Conferences of 1956 (Lima, Peru), Inter-American Third Meeting of Ministers of Education (Bogota, Colombia, 1963). Co-director of the Conference on Inter-American Exchange of Persons (Puerto Rico, 1958). Chairman of the Conference on International Youth Program (Pan American Union, 1963).

Publications: Reviews of French literary and scholarly works and of books on linguistics. Article on foreign languages in the curriculum (Modern Language Journal, May 1950). English translation of CANEK (Spanish original by Ermilo Abreu-Gome , Mexican writer). Article on the Foreign Student and International University (Americas, February, 1964).

Miscellaneous: Member, Board of Directors, Foreign Student Service Council; Former President, International House Association, Washington Chapter; Member, Board of Advisors, AIESEC-US, Association Internationale des Etudiants en Sciences Economiques et Commerciales Representative of the Pan American Union in the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs.

Miss D. Candace Hurley

Title: Associate Professor, Iowa State University, and Assistant Extension Editor of the Cooperative Extension Service.

Information Service departmental editor for home economics directing mass communication program relating to home economics extension education. On staff of University since 1946.

ICA consultant at Home Economics Communications Workshop held at Institute of Agricultural Sciences, Turrialba, Costa Rica, September 1957.

Recipient of Distinguished Service Award, U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1962, as writer, editor and section leader and for imaginative contributions in counseling, training and innovations in mass communication methods.

Cooperating writer of Fact Sheet Discussion materials for Cooperative Extension Service Public Affairs state-wide educational programs on "Challenges to Iowa," "Iowa Future" series, and "Financing Our Public Services." Member of Board of Directors, Journal of Cooperative Extension. Participant in development of Home Economics Image Research conducted by Iowa Home Economics Association and College of Home Economics, Iowa State University.

Member of the American Home Economics Association, Iowa Home Economics Association, American Association of Agricultural College Editors, American Association of University Professors. Also a member of Phi Upsilon Omicron, home economics professional organization; Theta Sigma Phi, journalism women's professional organization; Epsilon Sigma Phi, Cooperative Extension honorary.

Graduate of the University of Wisconsin with a B.S. degree in home economics journalism. Assistant in agricultural journalism, University of Wisconsin, 1934 to 1936. Assistant extension editor, University of Illinois Cooperative Extension Service, 1936 to 1943. Member of the Armed Forces serving in Military Personnel Division, Army Air Force, Washington, D.C., 1943 to 1946.

Dr. George M. Beal

Title: Professor of Economics and Sociology, Iowa State University

Research authority, teacher and consultant on sociological aspects of effective communication; community organization, adoption and diffusion processes; social action; group dynamics.

Member of Ford Foundation consultant team to government of India, 1959, to (1) study India's agricultural policies, administrative and organizational procedures and extension methods; (2) formulate measures to increase acceptance of new and improved agricultural production practices by village farmers, and (3) plan effective coordination of national efforts to improve agricultural production.

Leader of current research project on "Acceptance of Agricultural Techniques among the Queche Indians of Guatemala." Project stated Winter 1964.

Graduate advisor and participant on graduate committees for Iowa State University students from many countries including: Guatemala, Mexico, Napal, Peru, Pakistan, Greece, India.

Conductor of innumerable workshops related to training of persons entering foreign assignments, or persons working with foreign nationals here.

Author or co-author of many articles, papers and books; among them:
Author: "The Character of Changes in Agriculture; North America," Presented at First World Congress of Rural Sociology, Dijon, France, August, 1964.
Co-author: "How Farm People Accept New Ideas." (With Dr. Joe M. Bohlen). "The Diffusion Process" (With Dr. Bohlen). "The Dynamics of Leadership and Group Action" (Dr. Bohlen and Dr. J. Neil Radabaugh). "Report on India's Food Crisis and Steps to Meet It." Ford Foundation Report).
Contributing author: "Our Changing Rural Society."
"Problems and Policies of American Agriculture."

Member of American Sociological Society, Midwest Sociological Society, Vice-president of Rural Sociological Society. Member of Sigma Delta Chi, Alpha Kappa Delta, Gamma Sigma Delta.

Graduate of Iowa State University, B.S., agricultural economics, 1943; M.S., agricultural economics, 1947; Ph.D., sociology, 1953.

Officer, U.S. Army, 1943-46. Appointed to Iowa State University faculty, 1947.

Dr. Leonard Feinberg

Title: Professor of English, Iowa State University

Fulbright Professor of American Literature, University of Ceylon, 1957-58 school year.

Author: "The Satirist:His Temperament, Motivation and Influence," ISU Press, 1963.
"Unified Exercises: An English Grammar and Workbook," Oxford University Press, 1959 (Co-authored with Mrs. Feinberg)
"Man and Laughter," a series of 13 televisionfilms produced for Fund for Adult Education, 1955.
"Books on Trial," WOI-TV series, 1951.
"Social Criticism as a Teaching Technique," College English, 1950."
Credit course in World Literature, WOI-TV, 1954.

Member, Board of Editors, Best Television Plays of 1957, Harcourt, Brace, 1957.

Graduate of the University of Illinois, B.S., Education, 1937; M.A., English 1938; Ph.D., English, 1946.

Instructor, University of Illinois, 1938-43. Lieutenant (jg), Navy, during World War II. Appointed to Iowa State University faculty 1946.

Mr. Edwin O. Haroldsen

Title: Assistant Professor and Editor, Center for Agricultural and Economic Development, Iowa State University and Assistant Extension Editor, Cooperative Extension Service.

Member of the Iowa State University staff since 1961.

ICA information adviser from 1959 to 1961 for Turkish Ministry of Agriculture. Helped found Turkey's first commercial agricultural magazine, Ciftlik, and edited and secured publication in Turkish and English of a 500-page subject matter source book for use by Turkey's agricultural extension workers.

Twelve years' experience as staff writer and editor, Salt Lake Tribune, and Deseret News and Telegram, Salt Lake City, Utah; and Bureau manager and staff writer, United Press International, Boise, Idaho.

Agricultural Extension Editor, Utah State University, 1956 to 1958.

As editor for the Iowa State University Center for Agricultural and Economic Development, assists with Center program implementation including extensive publication's program. This has included editing of two books in the international area, "Food-One Tool in International Economic Development," ISU Press, 1962, and "The Economic Development of Agriculture-the Modernization of Farming," ISU Press, forthcoming, 1965, Author, with E.O. Heady, L.V. Mayer and L.G. Tweeten of "The Roots of the Farm Problem," ISU Press, forthcoming, 1965.

Member of Alpha Kappa Delta, honorary sociological fraternity; Sigma Delta Chi, professional journalism fraternity; American Association of Agricultural College Editors; Epsilon Sigma Phi, Cooperative Extension honorary.

Graduate of the University of Utah with a B.S. in Economics (high honors) in 1943 and M.S. in Journalism, 1956. Served in the U.S. Maritime Service during World War II. Graduate work in Rural Sociology, Iowa State University.

Donald E. Wells

Title: Assistant Professor and Supervisor of Graduate Studies, Department of Technical Journalism, Iowa State University

Former faculty member of Michigan State University Department of Communication, 1962-63 and 1959-60. Director of National Project in Agricultural Communication, Michigan State University, 1961-62, having previously served as Research editor and Office administrator with the Project, 1959-60.

Agricultural editor, University of Rhode Island, 1953-58; editor, Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Rhode Island, 1950-51.

Farm director, Armand S. Weill Company (advertising agency), Buffalo, New York, 1952-53.

Instructor for several seminars and workshops in communication, particularly the Michigan State University seminars (AID) for students from other countries.

Member of Alpha Zeta, the Association for Education in Journalism, the American Association for Public Opinion Research.

B.S. (honors), agricultural journalism, University of Wisconsin, 1949; M.S., agricultural journalism, University of Wisconsin, 1950; Ph.D., communication, Michigan State University, 1964.

Military service, U.S. Navy, 1943-46; commissioned in 1945.

Member of Iowa State University faculty since 1963.

Dr. Flemmie P. Kittrell

Title: Head of Home Economics, Howard University, Washington 1, D.C.

Born in Henderson, North Carolina

Education

Early Education - Public Schools of Vance County, North Carolina.
Undergraduate College - Hampton Institute, B.S., 1928.
Graduate School - Cornell University, M.S., 1930; Ph.D., 1935.

Scholarships and Fellowships

Rosenwald Scholarship to Cornell University
General Education Board Scholarship
Anna Cora Smith Scholarship of Cornell University
Graduate Assistant Stipend in nutrition at Cornell University

Awards and Citations

Liberian Award upon the one hundredth year of its founding, 1848 - 1948. Award presented in recognition of service to Liberia during period of nutrition survey work in 1947-48.

Hampton Alumni Award in 1955 as outstanding alumnus for the year. Elected to the Board of Trustees of Hampton Institute in 1955.

Who's Who First Edition of American Women, 1958.

International Club Award for improving international relations in the Howard University Community, 1961.

Scroll of Honor, National Council of Negro Women for special services rendered to the U.S. Government in foreign survey and research studies.

Office of Price Administration Award for voluntary contribution of time and effort to the Price Control Program, 1946.

Who's Who in America, 1964.

Honoree at Tribute Dinner of the National Council of Negro Women, 1964.

D.C. Home Economics Award in recognition of dedicated efforts of individual members of the Association, 1964.

Foreign Assignment and Travel

Made nutrition survey in Liberia, West Africa for U.S. State Department in 1947. Also visited and observed nutrition practices in neighboring countries of Nigeria, the Gold Coast, and French West Africa.

Attended International Congress of Home Economics in Stockholm, Sweden in 1949.

Attended International Congress of Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, Copenhagen, Denmark, 1949.

Fulbright award to India in 1950 to help at Baroda University with the organization of a College of Home Economics and to develop a research program for foods and nutrition.

Returned to India in 1953 for Point 4 Program and remained until 1955 on U.S. State Department assignment to help with the completion of the organization of the College of Home Economics at Baroda University. Was invited to return by the Government of India.

Served as leader for U.S. State Department of accompany twenty-two Indian women to Japan and to Hawaii to study Home Economics extension methods for a period of two months, 1957.

Three Cultural Tours to Africa for the U.S. State Department - 1957 to West Africa; 1959 to West Africa; 1959 to West and Central Africa; 1961 to Guinea.

Nutrition Survey of India and Thailand for United Nations (FAO), 1960.

Home Economics Consultant to the Congo Polytechnic Institute for the Woman's Division of the Methodist Church for a period of 1961-1965.

Consultant for Methodist Church in Northern and Southern Rhodesia and Mozambique, August and September, 1961.

Publications

"Food and Nutrition Survey of Liberia, West Africa," for U.S. Department of State African Division, 1948.

"The Contribution of Research to the Field of Child Development and Family Relations," International Journal of Home Economics, 1949.

"The Negro Family as a Health Agency," Journal of Negro Education, Howard University Press, 1951.

"Science in Home Economics," Proceedings of All-India Home Science Association, Madras, India, 1954.

"Frontiers in Uganda," Young Women's Christian Association Magazine published at the National Board in December, 1958.

"Changes in the Eating Habits of Foreign Born Children as Observed in the Nursery School," Kittrell & Majumder, Howard University, 1958, and Research Related to Children, United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

"Survey on Nutrition Training in India," United Nations (FAO), 1960.

"Home Economics Philosophy Underlying the New Home Economics Building," Howard University Magazine, March, 1963.

"The Needs of Families Around the World," The Methodist Woman-In press for June, 1963.

Miss C. Frances MacKinnon

Title: Former Home Economics Officer, FAO Regional Office for Latin America

Born in Boulder, Montana

Education

A.B. in Home Economics - University of Montana
M.S. in Nutrition, Medical School, University of Michigan
Graduate work; University of Chicago; School of Public Health, Harvard University

Experience

Nutritionist - American Red Cross - 1926-1931, 1941-43
Dietitian and Instructor: University Hospital, Ann Arbor, Mich., Schools of Public Health and Medicine, University of Michigan 1931-41
Consultant in Nutrition, Children's Bureau, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, assigned to Latin America - 1943-47
Instructor in Nutrition, School of Public Health, Harvard University 1947-49
Associate Professor of Nutrition: School of Public Health, Univ. of North Carolina 1949-59
Leave of absence in Malaysia 1956-57 as home economist with FAO of the U.N.
Home Economics Officer - Regional Office for Latin America of the FAO in Santiago, Chile, 1959-64
Presently - Visiting Professor, College of Home Economics, Penn. State University.

Dr. Linda Nelson

Title: Associate Home Economist, Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences, Graduate School, Turrialba, Costa Rica

Education

1950 - B.S. in Home Economics Education, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia
1953 - M.S. in Home Management, Iowa State University, Ames
1963 - Ph.D. in Home Management and Anthropology, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

Positions Held

Two years graduate assistant in Home Management, Iowa State University;
One year instructor in Home Management at Iowa State University;
Six years as instructor in Home Management and Child Development at Michigan State;
Two years in research in Costa Rica
Four years in Costa Rica in present position in research, teaching and consultation all over Latin America

Publications

English - Bulletin About Family Finance published by Compton's Encyclopedia

Spanish - Two articles on observation methods published in the magazine "Extension en las Americas",

Portuguese - Five speeches about home economics extension with adult groups published in pamphlet form by the Brazilian extension service.

Member of Pi Lambda Theta, Mortar Board, Alpha Kappa Delta (sociology), Omicron Nu, Phi Kappa Phi, American Home Economics Association.

Dr. Wesley F. Buchele

Title: Professor of Agricultural Engineering, Iowa State University

Education

BS in Agricultural Engineering, Kansas State University - 1943
MS in Agricultural Engineering, University of Arkansas - 1951
Ph.D. in Agricultural Engineering and Soil Physics, Iowa State University-1954

Positions Held

U.S. Army 1943 to 1946 - Artillery, Infantry, Ordnance Junior
Engineer, John Deere Waterloo Tractor Works 1946-48
Assistant Professor, University of Arkansas 1948-1950
Assistant Professor, Iowa State University 1954-1963
Associate Professor, Michigan State University 1956-63
Professor, Iowa State University 1963-present

Overseas Assignments

Phillippine Islands and Japan, August 1945 - July 1946
Europe, , June - July 1961. Delegate, Ist International Conference on Mechanics of Soil-Vechicle Systems, Torino Italy. Two papers. World Tour, July 1963 to Sept 1963. Delegate to the conference, Engineering Aspects of Rice Production Los Banos, The Phillippines. Three papers. Europe, June - July, 1964. Delegate, NATO advanced study institute on mechanization of field experiments, Norway. Two papers.

Professional Listings

Who's Who in Engineering, Eighth Editor, page 318, 1959.
American Men of Science, The Physical and Biological sciences, Tenth Edition, page 505, 1960.
Who's Who in the Midwest, Eighth Edition, Page 122, 1963-64.
Leaders in American Science, Fifth Edition, Page 92, 1963.
Dictionary of International Biography, Vol. 2. Page 21, 1965

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Professional Engineer: Iowa No. 3406

Awards: ASAE Outstanding paper award 1959, 1961

Dr. Forrest G. Moore

Title: Associate Professor of Education and Director, Office of Adviser to Foreign Students, University of Minnesota

Born in Wadena, Iowa

Education

Upper Iowa University, Fayette, Iowa	B.A. 1939
University of Minnesota	M.A. 1946
University of Minnesota	Ph.D. 1953

Experience

Teaching: Hartford, S.D. public schools -- instructor mathematics and science, 1939-41.

Joined University of Minnesota staff in 1946 as administrative fellow, Office of Dean of Students.
- 1947 - Student counselor, foreign student adviser's office
- 1948 - Senior student counselor
- 1951 - Principal student personnel worker
- 1954 - Assistant professor of education and principal student personnel worker
- 1958 - Associate professor and director, Office of Adviser to Foreign Students

Served in U.S. Navy 1941-45; was flight instructor, 1942-43
Member: Sigma Tau Delta and Pi Kappa Delta

Affiliate of the Minnesota Psychological association
Member, board of directors, National association of Foreign Students Advisers, 1946-
Honorary member, Association of Cosmopolitan Clubs and area advisory council
Member, NAFSA executive committee, 1949-50, president, 1958-59
Member, subcommittee, Committee on Student Personnel Work for the American Council on Education
Member, advisory committee on undergraduate studies, Institute of International Education, 1951, 1952-54
Member, membership committee, American College Personnel association, 1952-54
Member, board of management, University YMCA, 1953-54
Member, committee on international education, 1953-54

4-month world tour to visit foreign alumni, Dec. '58-March. '59, Visited 13 countries; sponsored by Carnegie Foundation

Miss Gertrude Drinker

Title: Chief, Education Programs Branch, Foreign Training Division, IADS

Miss Drinker has served as a home demonstration agent in her home state of Virginia. She was a Regional Home Economist for the Farmers Home Administration and in 1948 transferred to Washington, D.C., to serve as Chief Home Economist on the National Staff of the Farmers Home Administration. This assignment involved work in 48 states, Puerto Rico and Hawaii.

In 1953, Miss Drinker transferred to the Foreign Agricultural Service, Foreign Training Division. On August 5, 1963, the eighteenth Service in USDA - - the International Agricultural Development Service -- was established and the Foreign Training Division transferred to this new Service.

Miss Drinker is the Chief, Education Programs Branch of the Foreign Training Division, IADS. Her work brings her in contact with people from all over the world who come to the United States to study agriculture and home economics through the channel of the Foreign Training Division.

Dr. Coradel Hamilton

Title: Chief, Home Economics Branch, Nutrition Division, Food and Agriculture Organization

Born in Pennsylvania

Education

Ph. D. Degree:	In Home Economics with majors in Family Economics and Textiles and minors in Economics and Agricultural Economics. 1956. Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana.
M.S. Degree:	In Home Economics with a mojor in Clothing and Textiles and a minor in Business Administration. 1948. University of Alabama, University, Alabama.
B.S. Degree:	In Home Economics with minors in Biological Science and Home Economics Education. 1938. West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia.
Supplemental Education:	Graduate School, University of California, Berkeley, California. 1948, fall semester.
Honorary and Professional Societies:	Omicron Nu, Phi Upsilon Omicron, and Kappa Delta Pi.

Positions Held

Sept. 62-Present:	Chief, Home Economics Branch, Nutrition Division, FAO
Sept. 61-Sept. 62:	FAO EPTA expert. Terms of reference: to assist Ministry of Higher Education of the Government of UAR in revising Home Economic curricula at government teacher training college and secondary school level.
April 61-Sept. 61:	Coordinator (same professorial rank) between College of Agriculture and School of Home Economics. Purdue, orientation and training programmes for fellowship students in home economics from developing countries.
1956-April 1961:	Professor, Agricultural Extension Service, Purdue University, Assigned to Brazile Technical Assistance Program, Purdue ICA/W College Contract. Superior School of Home Economics. Rural University, Vicosa, Minas Gerais, Brazil. Directing the development of a college-level school of Home Economics at the Rural University.
1953-1956:	Associate Professor in Home Economics, Margaret Morrison College, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Schenley Park, Pittsburgh. Taught courses in Consumer Economics and Textile Analysis.
1952-1953:	Instructor in Home Economics in the Department of Home Management and Family Economics, School of Home Economics, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana. Taught courses in Home Management and Home Furnishings and was resident advisor in one of the Home Management Houses.
1950-1953:	Graduate teaching assistant in the Department of Home Management and Family Economics, School of Home Economics, Purdue University. Resident advisor in one of the Home Management Houses.

Dr. Katharine Holtzclaw

Title: Home Economics Representative, Agency for International Development

Dr. Katharine Holtzclaw is a native of Georgia. Her early education took place in her native state but later she attended Peabody College at Nashville, Tennessee and the University of Chicago. She was granted her Ph.D. degree from New York University. She served as Dean of Home Economics in several Southern colleges before her first foreign assignment in 1947. For the past years she has worked with AID or its predecessor organizations.

She first worked in Germany. From Germany she was transferred to the European Office, then called MSA. While there her headquarters were in Paris and she worked as home economics consultant in ten countries of Europe and in Turkey and Greece. Dr. Holtzclaw was transferred to Washington in 1954. Since that time, she has visited and made surveys in over fifty countries of Latin America, Africa, the Near East and the Far East.

Dr. Michael Chiappetta

Title: Director, Multilateral Policy Planning Staff, Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, Department of State

Dr. Chiappetta studied at the University of Michigan receiving his AB in Latin, MA in Classics and Ph.D. in Philosophy and History of Education. He taught in the Education program of a number of universities including Michigan, Colorado, California, Illinois, Pennsylvania State and Arizona State College.

He was a Smith-Mundt Lecturer in Mexico lecturing on Comparative Education and Philosophy of Education.

Dr. Chiappetta joined the Government service in 1960 with the International Cooperation Administration (now the Agency for International Development) working in the area of education in Latin America. In November 1964 he joined the Department of State as Director of the Multilateral Policy Planning Staff. The Staff is responsible for the development of international programs in education, science, cultural exchange and mass communication.

Dr. Earl O. Heady

Title: Iowa State University Professor of Economics, Curtiss Distinguished Professor of the University, Executive Director of the Center for Agricultural and Economic Development

Born in Chase County, Nebraska

Education

(a) Graduated from Imperial High School, Chase County, Nebraska, 1933.
(b) B.S. Degree in economics and agriculture, University of Nebraska, 1939.
(c) M.S. Degree in agricultural economics, University of Nebraska, 1940.
(d) Ph.D. Degree in agricultural economics, general economics and statistics, Iowa State University, 1945.
(e) Attended University of Chicago, 1941.

Professional Experience

(a) Consultant to the Tennessee Valley Authority, (b) Consultant to the Agricultural Marketing Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, (c) Consultant to Office of Experiment Stations of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, (d) Consultant to Economic Research Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, (e) Consultant to Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, (f) Consultant to Rockefeller Foundation and Government of India on research and graduate training programs in India, (g) Consultant to Esso Foundation on economic development programs, (h) Consultant to Ford Foundation on Eastern Europe and Latin American programs, (i) Visiting professor, University of Illinois, 1949, (j) member of staff on seminar in agricultural efficiency, University of Chicago, 1950. (k) Visiting Professor North Carolina State University, 1952, (l) Visiting professor, Harvard University, 1956, (m) Fellow, Center for Advanced Studies in the Behavioral Science, 1960-61, (n) Member Whitehouse Group on Domestic Affairs, (o) Miscellaneous lecturer to many universities and research academies in U.S. and other countries. Chief consultant to the government of Greece in the organization of national research.

Foreign Travel and Experience

Japan, Formosa, Phillippines, Thailand, India, Pakistan, Turkey, Egypt, Italy, France, Netherlands, England, Hungary, Poland, Russia, Canada, Mexico, Puerto Rico, Greece, Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Norway.

Publications

Author of seven books and over 300 journal articles and research monographs or bulletins.

Academic and Professional Honors

(a) Certificate of superior scholarship for upper three percent of graduating class and member Gamma Sigma Delta, 1938, (b) Social Science Research Council Faculty Award, 1950-53, (c) American Farm Economic Association Award for out-standing research in 1949, 1954, 1956, 1958, and 1960, (d) Selected as Fellow for Center of Advanced Studies in the Behavioral Sciences, 1960-61, (e) Awarded honorary degree D.Sc., University of Nebraska, 1960, (f) Gamma Sigma Delta Distinguished Service Award for Contributions to Agriculture, 1962, (g) Awarded Iowa University Press prize for most significant new book by University staff member, 1962, (h) Named Fellow of American Farm Economics Society, 1963, (i) Vice-President, American Farm Economics Society, 1954, (j) Vice-President, Canadian Agricultural Economics Society, 1957, (k) Elected honorary member of the Hungarian Academy of Science, 1964, (l) Miscellaneous others.